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THE EFFECTS OF MAIN IDEA IDENTIFICATION INSTRUCTION
ON EFL STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION
AND SUMMARY WRITING

POR
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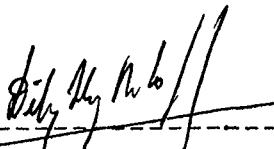
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Aos meus pais,
Osair e Roseni.


Esta dissertação foi julgada adequada e aprovada em sua forma final pelo programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês para a obtenção do grau de

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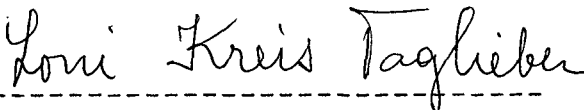


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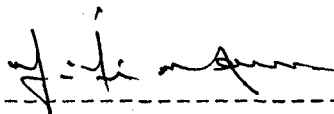


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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of main idea identification instruction on Brazilian EFL students' reading comprehension and summary writing of expository texts. Twenty-four low level EFL students of Colégio de Aplicação, a public high-school in Florianópolis, Santa Catarina, participated in the study. Subjects were divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group received instruction on identifying main ideas in expository texts while the control group received instruction on vocabulary and grammar knowledge. The subjects' English and Portuguese reading comprehension was assessed through pre and post tests with multiple choice and open-ended items. The subjects' summary writing was also pre and post tested by having them summarize expository texts (English and Portuguese) they had read. The difference of means tests performed on the data showed that instruction on main idea identification exerted a significant influence on the reading comprehension of students in the experimental group. However, results revealed that instruction on main idea identification only partially influenced students' summary writing. This outcome strengthens the findings of previous research in the area which suggest that the curricular combination of reading and writing can improve both skills, and that neither only writing nor only reading instruction is sufficient to increase students' reading and writing quality.

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RESUMO

O objetivo do presente trabalho é examinar a influência do ensino de identificação de idéias principais em textos expositivos na compreensão e escrita de resumos de alunos brasileiros estudando Inglês como língua estrangeira. Vinte e quatro alunos de nível baixo em língua inglesa e matriculados no Colégio de Aplicação, uma escola pública em Florianópolis, Santa Catarina, participaram do estudo. Os sujeitos foram divididos em dois grupos: experimental e controle. O grupo experimental recebeu instrução em identificação de idéias principais e o grupo controle em vocabulário e gramática. A compreensão de leitura em inglês e português dos sujeitos foi avaliada através de pre e pós testes contendo perguntas abertas e de múltipla escolha. A proficiência na escrita de resumos foi testada antes e depois da instrução através de resumos de textos expositivos (em inglês e português) que os sujeitos escreveram depois de lido os textos. Os cálculos estatísticos realizados para observar a probabilidade de significância da diferença entre médias dos grupos indicaram que o ensino de identificação de idéias principais exerceu uma influência significativa na compreensão dos sujeitos do grupo experimental. Por outro lado, os resultados revelaram que o ensino de identificação de idéias principais apenas influenciou parcialmente a escrita de resumos do grupo experimental. Este resultado corrobora com os achados de pesquisas anteriores na área de leitura que sugerem que a integração do ensino da leitura e escrita poderá ajudar a aperfeiçoar ambas as capacidades, e que a instrução de apenas a leitura ou de apenas a escrita não é suficiente para melhorar a qualidade de ambas as habilidades.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of instruction on main idea identification upon secondary English as a foreign language (EFL) students' comprehension of English texts and summary writing.

1.1. Rationale

The idea of developing this research emerged during the period of 1987 to 1989 while this researcher worked at the Laboratório Clínico de Leitura of Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC). In this laboratory, undergraduate students from several areas receive remedial help and instruction to improve their reading skills. It has been observed that the major complaint of most students who seek help at the laboratory is related to their inability to comprehend texts and to their difficulty to write efficiently about the content of their readings both in Portuguese and in the foreign language.

Brazilian college students majoring in fields such as Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Dentistry, Medicine, Computer Science, and many others, at more advanced stages of their programs, are required to read a great deal of materials about their subjects of study written in foreign languages. It is important for these future professionals to

have access to the most recent publications in their fields of study, and most of the publications pertaining to the various fields mentioned above are usually found only in English books and periodicals (Cohen, Glasman, Rosenbaum-Cohen, Ferrara, and Fine, 1988). The type of reading skill these students need in order to read English texts consists of extracting the essential information, i. e., the main ideas from the texts so that they may briefly summarize this information in written form in their native language - Portuguese.

However, as discussed before, these students have great difficulties when faced with texts in English and required to perform such tasks. It seems that although most Brazilian colleges offer two or three semesters of English classes to students of those fields, their reading problems continue, and, as a result they become so frustrated that they do not read the assigned texts at all or they tend to look for more simplified books on the same subjects in Portuguese which, sometimes, roughly cover the same material (Cohen et al, 1988). A similar problem occurs when students are required to summarize an English text they were assigned to read and to take notes for a paper they have to write later, or to present a writer's point of view, etc.. They usually have difficulties to detect the main ideas of a text and to summarize it. This may be because usually they have not received appropriate instruction to perform these tasks (Lima, 1984).

It is also possible that the roots of the reading and writing difficulties these students face in college can be

traced back to their high school training, more specifically to their training in the native language. Many Brazilian college teachers have frequently expressed their concern over the fact that students who have finished high school and entered college do not know how to read and write in Portuguese, although during their elementary and secondary schooling they certainly were required to read and write substantially (Cavalcanti, 1984). Perhaps one of the causes of students' problems with these skills is the fact that the teaching of Portuguese at elementary and secondary school tends to focus instruction on grammar and memorization rather than on the comprehension of texts.

As regards the instruction of English in high school, the situation is not very different. In general the focus of teaching is on grammatical structures, as may be verified in the EFL manuals used in most high schools, at least in this state. As a result, when students finish high school, they can neither write nor read the simplest text in English, although they have had five or six years of English during their secondary schooling. So, perhaps it could be said that the reading and writing difficulties in first and second languages are related. Research has suggested that lack of good reading skills in the first language may retard or at least make the acquisition of good reading skills in a second language more difficult, and by the same token, good reading skills in one's native language may facilitate the acquisition of good reading

skills in a second language (Alderson, 1984). However, research findings on this issue are not very consistent yet.

The present study is an attempt at minimizing the problems that Brazilian college students majoring in Chemical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Dentistry, etc. face when they are required to read expository texts in English in order to extract the main ideas from these texts and to summarize them in Portuguese. It seems plausible that these problems could be minimized if English instruction during the last two years in high school focused more on comprehension and production of text than on grammar. It was thought that techniques to accomplish this should be incorporated in the teaching of English in high school.

Since the beginning of the 1980's, some researchers have argued that reading and writing share common characteristics which involve meaning making. It has been suggested that both skills are acts of composing which demand good readers and/or writers to plan, draft, align, review and monitor their work (Petrosky, 1982; Tierney and Pearson, 1983). Thus, the idea of connecting reading and writing instruction in the classroom in order to enhance the students' performance in both skills has been strongly advocated.

Some researchers in the area have developed classroom activities in which reading and writing skills are combined. Oberlin and Shugarman (1988), for instance, proposed a prewriting activity in which students can relate reading to writing. Santa, Dailey and Nelson (1985) suggested the

following four-step instructional process: (1) free-response, (2) opinion-proof, (3) writing, and (4) peer editing, in which both reading and writing skills are coordinated. In another activity, Sanacore (1985) combined the use of prior knowledge and text structure procedures to enhance students' awareness of text structure and content knowledge. Finally, Miccinati (1988) proposed a notetaking procedure, namely mapping in which students are required to select the most important points in a text by thinking how the information is related and, then, to illustrate this material graphically. Although these activities have different procedures, all of them have been suggested as effective devices for the development of students' reading comprehension, production of texts, and acquisition of content because they may develop: (1) students' prior knowledge, (2) students' own monitoring on the task, and (3) students' awareness of the organization of the text.

Moreover, research on the integration of reading and writing activities conducted with native speakers of English has suggested that one skill can improve the other. Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan and McGinley (1989), for instance, investigated the effects of combining reading and writing upon undergraduate students' critical thinking. They found out that this combination of skills produced better results than when students used reading and writing separately. In other studies which included both reading and writing skills, researchers investigated the effects of summarization training upon students' reading comprehension and production of texts and

found significant differences in students' test scores after the training (Taylor and Beach, 1984; Rinehart, Stahl and Erickson, 1986).

But, although reading and writing have some common characteristics, the nature of the processes involved in these skills is distinct and this should not be disregarded. According to Shanahan (1988), because of their differences one skill cannot replace the other, but they may be integrated in classroom instruction. However, the author adverts that before interrelating reading and writing in classroom instruction, teachers should consider their students' level and the influence that one single component of reading (main idea identification, for example) might have on one single component of writing (such as summarizing). According to Shanahan (1984), this is an adequate procedure since the nature of the reading and writing connection might change with learning, or development. In other words, what students learn in reading and writing in one stage of their schooling can be qualitatively different from what they have learned before or from what they will learn in the next stage.

Based on Shanahan's (1984) view, some studies were developed to investigate the influence that one skill might have on the other. Stotsky (1983), for example, reviewed a group of studies especially designed to measure the influence of writing upon reading. The findings of these studies have suggested that instruction in writing improves students' reading comprehension and learning of content. Yet, she found

that very few studies had been developed in order to examine the influence of reading upon writing.

Among these few studies, some have concentrated on the effects that instruction of main idea identification may have on students' reading comprehension and writing skill. Baumann (1984), for example, examined the effectiveness of a direct instruction model for teaching the skill of identifying main ideas to students who are native speakers of English. Results of the study suggested that direct instruction increased students' comprehension of main ideas and improved their ability of writing outlines. In another study, Bjostrom and Hare (1984) investigated the influence of instruction in main idea identification on native English speakers' reading, comprehension and summary writing. Results indicated improvement in students' summary writing quality but not in their reading comprehension. Guri-Rosenblit (1989) examined the effects of a graphic device which contains the main idea of a text - the tree-diagram - on students' comprehension of an expository text with multiple themes. Results of the study showed that the tree-diagram had positive effects on students' recall and reading comprehension.

It has also been stated that the instruction in main idea identification may be an excellent tool to help students solve their problems concerning general reading comprehension of texts (Williams, 1984; Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble, 1989; Jacobowitz, 1990). According to these authors, the ability to identify the main ideas in a text is a fundamental skill since

it underlies the comprehension of most expository texts. Moreover, other researchers have claimed that the identification of main ideas is intimately linked to summary writing since both skills involve the process of selecting important information in the texts (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Brown and Day, 1983; Sherrard, 1989). Thus, it seems that making students aware of the importance and the means of getting the gist out of a text may enable them to develop their own strategies and to use them individually while reading and summarizing a text.

As can be seen, the body of research on techniques of combining reading and writing in the classroom in order to enhance both these skills is still small, and the findings are not very consistent yet. In addition, all studies discussed above were conducted with native speakers of English. No research has been found in this area with students of ESL or EFL in the literature accessible to this researcher. Yet it seems that EFL students have very similar reading and writing problems as native speakers of English, particularly with the skills of extracting main ideas from texts and of summarizing these ideas in written form (Cohen, 1988). Thus, one could suppose that direct instruction in finding main ideas in a text may also improve EFL students' understanding and summarizing of written texts.

1.2. Statement of the problem, and hypotheses of the study

Considering the positive effects of teaching main idea identification in texts on the reading comprehension and summary writing of students who are native speakers of English, as reported in the literature, and considering the fact that EFL students meet similar problems as native speakers of English when they are faced with reading and writing, it was hypothesized that this technique might also help improve the reading comprehension of texts and summary writing of Brazilian high school students of EFL. For this reason, and because of the dearth of research in this area with students of EFL, the present study was designed to investigate the effects of teaching main idea identification on the comprehension and summarization of expository texts of Brazilian high school students of EFL. Reading comprehension was measured through multiple choice and open-ended items, and summary writing was tested by having subjects summarize texts they had read. The summaries were scored for number of occurrences of main ideas, secondary ideas, and details related to the content of the texts read. Based on the results of previous studies with native speakers of English, it was expected that subjects who received main idea identification instruction would have higher scores on the reading comprehension tests than those who received instruction on vocabulary meaning and grammar.

Based on the rationale discussed above, the following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

1. The instruction on detecting main ideas in expository texts improves students' reading comprehension.

2. The instruction on detecting main ideas in expository texts improves students' ability to summarize.

1.3. Limitations and Significance of the Study

Since this study was conducted with a particular group of secondary students and non-standard tests were used, the results obtained in this research cannot be generalized to other students of EFL. However, this study has its significance: first, it is one of the first studies to examine the influence of reading upon writing with EFL students. Second, it allows us a step further in determining how far one single component of reading main idea identification in this case, might influence one single component of writing namely, summarizing. Third, it supplies teachers of English who are interested in developing their EFL students' main idea comprehension with some practical material design.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

In this chapter some of the literature concerned with: (1) the importance of relating reading and writing in classroom instruction; (2) reading comprehension and the identification of main ideas; and (3) main idea identification and summary writing skills has been reviewed.

2.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN READING AND WRITING

For a long time, reading and writing were seen as two processes endowed with contrastive characteristics. While reading was viewed as a passive, non-creative process in which meaning was derived from print to the reader's mind, writing was defined as an active, creative process which involved the transmission of meaning from the writer's mind to print (Rubin and Hansen, 1984; Shanahan, 1984).

As studies proceeded, however, a new approach to reading evolved out of Goodman's (1970) and Smith's (1971) psycholinguistic theories of reading as well as of Rumelhart's (1980) interactive view of reading. Reading is no longer considered a passive process; instead, it is described as an

active process which involves interaction between the reader and the text in order to build meaning. That is, readers only create meaning from a text by relating their activated background knowledge to the author's message. As Marcuschi (1984) states, the text serves as an intermediate stimulus between the author and the reader which depends on internal and external stabilizers to turn out a meaningful unit. According to Marcuschi, the internal stabilizers are the cohesive and coherent levels of the text, while the external stabilizers are the inferences produced by the reader, his/her world knowledge, beliefs and the circumstances in which the text is read.

From this reading perspective, researchers have recognized the important relationship between reading and writing. Some maintain that both skills are acts of composing which involve meaning making. Petrosky (1982), for example, argues that:

When we read, we comprehend by putting together impressions of the text with our personal, cultural, and contextual models of reality. When we write, we compose by making meaning from available information, our personal knowledge, and the cultural and contextual frames we happen to find ourselves in. Our theoretical understandings of these processes are converging [...] around the central role of human understanding - be it of texts or the world - as a process of composing (p. 26).

Vacca and Vacca (1986) also favor this meaning construction activity during the reading and writing processes. They state that "while the writer works to make the text sensible, the reader works to make sense out of text" (p. 210).

According to Tierney and Pearson (1983), as we compose a text either by reading or writing it, we all face "internal

struggles" and make use of some composing characteristics. They suggest in their paper that the following five composing characteristics can be identified in both reading and writing processes: (1) planning - both readers and writers plan by setting goals which emerge, are discovered and, sometimes, changed while reading or writing, and by mobilizing their knowledge which will influence in what they read or produce; (2) drafting - according to the authors, writers and readers draft to make things logically connected. They state that writers decide what to include and what to withhold in their production while readers fill in gaps and make connections of the information in the text; (3) aligning - readers and writers may adopt different stances with their author or audience; for example, a writer may adopt a neutral tone, whereas a reader may be critical; (4) revising - this is a characteristic which demands harder work and which, sometimes, readers do not make use of; however, as writers reexamine and reread their production, good readers also do the same to achieve better comprehension; and finally, (5) monitoring - this functions as an evaluative process of what readers and writers have developed. By consciously monitoring their work, good readers and writers can decide whether they have planned, drafted, aligned and revised properly.

Tierney and Pearson (1983) point out that although these characteristics give the impression of sequential stages, they

probably occur simultaneously. That is, while we are reading or writing we use simultaneously all five characteristics depending upon our necessities during the reading or writing act.

Since reading and writing have shown to be closely related, some researchers have strongly suggested that their curricular combination could bring positive outcomes in both skills and in content area learning. Shanahan (1988), for example, proposes seven instructional principles based upon research on the relationship of reading and writing.

The first principle is that teachers should teach daily both reading and writing. Although these skills share common characteristics they do not overlap the function of each other, but they are developed when practiced regularly and in combination. The author also suggests, as the second, third and fourth principles, that both skills should be taught differently according to the students' developmental levels and that the reading-writing connection should be made explicit to the students so that they can perceive the similarities between both skills. Teachers should also equally emphasize instruction on product knowledge (phonemic awareness, word meanings, cohesion, passage organization, etc.) and on process knowledge (strategies for solving problems or carrying out complex activities, etc.). Finally, as the sixth and seventh principles say, reading and writing should be taught as communicative skills which are used to have an effect on other people and in meaningful contexts so that students might use them for various

purposes in different contexts. The author believes that by following these principles teachers could help children to develop their literacy learning.

Based on this idea of connecting reading and writing, some researchers have developed specific classroom activities involving both reading and writing skills. Oberlin and Shugarman (1988) and Sanacore (1983), for instance, suggested that reading comprehension as well as acquisition of content could be improved by improving writing skills. Oberlin and Shugarman (1988) proposed a prewriting activity which would make students conscious of the relation between the prewriting and prereading stages. Sanacore (1983) reviewed some strategies developed by other researchers which apparently helped students to improve content area learning and reading comprehension. By making use of these strategies, students had to activate their background knowledge properly and to use some writing tasks in order to perceive the structure of texts.

Santa, Dailey and Nelson (1985) developed an instructional sequence which combined reading and writing activities. The instructional sequence was divided into four steps. First, students were taught how to use their background knowledge in order to achieve better comprehension. Then, they were taught how to monitor their own comprehension without the guidance of the teacher's questioning. The third step was to make students write about what they had just read as a means of helping them to learn the content; and finally, students were told to edit

their own and their colleagues' works. This last step was expected to develop students' critical thinking.

Some of the classroom techniques combining reading and writing suggested to enhance writing through reading have already been investigated through research. In the following subsection of this review some of these studies will be presented.

2.1.1. The influence of reading upon writing

There have been few studies that attempted to examine the influence of reading upon writing. Krashen (1986), in his book about writing, stated that "voluntary reading has generally been found to be more effective in producing gains in writing than increasing writing frequency ..." (p.5/6). Similarly, a group of studies reported in Stotsky (1983), showed that additional reading may be as good as, or better than, grammar study or additional writing practice in improving writing.

Stotsky (1983) also reviewed studies which attempted to improve writing through reading instruction. She found that although most of the experimental groups of these studies achieved higher scores in their reading comprehension tests, no significant improvement was found in their writing ability.

On the other hand, Sjoström and Hare's (1984) study on the influence of reading instruction upon writing reported significant gains. They conducted a study with ninth and tenth graders with the objective of determining whether direct

instruction in main idea identification would influence students' general reading comprehension and summary writing quality. The findings showed positive outcomes in summary writing but not in general reading comprehension (see section 2.2. of this chapter for a detailed description of this study).

Various classroom techniques to combine reading and writing in the classroom to enhance both skills have been suggested, such as journal writing based on readings, mapping reading texts as a preparation for essay writing, and others. In this study main idea identification in texts and summary writing will be combined.

E.2. READING COMPREHENSION AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF MAIN IDEAS

Several studies have attempted to investigate how readers comprehend their reading (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Taylor and Beach, 1984; Rinehart, Stahl and Erickson, 1986). These studies have analysed reading comprehension under several conditions such as, the nature of the material (expository or narrative texts, etc.) and the subjects' background (age, level of instruction, etc.). Moreover, the reading process has also

been frequently separated into different subskills as an attempt of better analysing the entire process. Pearson and Johnson (1978) stated that "...any attempt to separate the reading process into little compartments is, at best, an arbitrary convenience allowing us to talk about one thing at a time" (p. 03). It would be practically impossible to examine reading comprehension if some variables and skills were not controlled.

One of the component skills of reading comprehension is the identification of main ideas. This skill has been acknowledged by many as essential to both reading and oral comprehension (Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Brown and Smiley, 1978; Williams, 1984; Sjostrom and Hare, 1984; Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble, 1989).

Baumann (1984), for example, argued that:

Since readers are faced with large amounts of text, all of which cannot be recalled, it is desirable for readers to be able to discriminate important from less important ideas so that memory can be used efficiently to retain the essential information in a text. (p.94)

Indeed, it has been recognized that there is a limit to the amount of information one can receive, process, and remember at a time (Miller, 1956; Simon, 1974; Eskey, 1986). Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) have attempted to show how readers condense the individual propositions of a text, that is, the assertions about the world that typically take the form of a clause or a sentence (Thorndike, 1977), into its gist. Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) developed a model of text comprehension and production

of recall and summarization protocols. According to this model, a text entails microstructures and macrostructures. The microstructures are the sequence of propositions which contain meaning at local levels while the macrostructures contain meaning at global levels. The authors postulated that, at the time a person is reading a text, he/she reduces and organizes its microstructures into macrostructures, through the application of a series of macro-rules, so that they can remember and comprehend text content. Sherrard (1989) gave a clear description of this transformation:

The Macrostructure is said to be built up during comprehension by first abstracting the explicit propositions from the text, then inferring propositions which are necessary to perceive cohesion in the text. Some propositions are next selected for storage in a limited-capacity memory buffer over a series of cycles. At each cycle, only those propositions are retained in the buffer which can be related through shared inference, with other propositions. In this way, propositions become linked together, and in turn become linked to superordinate propositions (Macropropositions) which can be used to replace them if the text is to be stored in long-term memory or to be summarized. (p. 2)

Within their Macrostructure theory, Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) distinguished four macro-rules for producing macropropositions: 1. Deletion, in which every proposition that is not an interpretation condition of another proposition may be deleted. For example, "The boy destroyed the ball. The ball was white." becomes "The boy destroyed the ball". 2. Selection, in which we may delete every proposition that denotes a normal condition, component or consequence of a macroproposition. Thus, "The man went to London. So, he went to

the airport, bought a ticket, took the plane ..." becomes "The man went to London by plane". 3. Generalization, in which a sequence of propositions may be substituted by a general proposition which defines its immediate superconcept. For instance, "The child likes apples. The child likes grapes. The child likes oranges." becomes "The child likes fruits". Finally, 4. Construction, in which we may replace a sequence of propositions by a global proposition when the first can be inferred through knowledge of normal situations and conditions, components and consequence of the latter. Thus, "the man went to the airport, bought a ticket ..." are replaced by "The man travelled by plane".

These macro-rules are not applied randomly but in accordance to the reader's goals. According to van Dijk (1979), the reader's goals determine which elements in the text can be judged important or unimportant on the basis of two criteria: 1. reader-based criteria, in which important information is defined by the reader's interest and background knowledge; and 2. text-based criteria, in which important information is derived from the schematic structure through the use of verbal cues in the text.

Actually, the task of determining what is important in a text, or what should be considered a main idea in a text is quite complex. For the purpose of this study, Aull's (1978) definition of main idea was used:

The main idea of a paragraph signals to the reader the most important statement the writer has presented to

explain the topic [topic previously being defined as that which signals to the reader the subject of the discourse]. This statement characterizes the major idea to which the majority of sentences refer. (p. 92)

But, since the identification of main ideas is part of the reading comprehension process, the factors which influence readers' general reading comprehension will also influence their sensitivity to importance. These factors are: the affective components, the linguistic knowledge, schemata, and the text itself (Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Hudson, 1982).

The affective components which influence the reading process are the students' interest and motivation towards the text as well as their reading environment at home and in school. Reading comprehension is also dependent on the readers' linguistic knowledge. That is, the readers' phonological, syntactic and semantic knowledge about the language.

Only one study that examined the influence of students' linguistic knowledge on their ability to identify main ideas was found in the literature. Koerich (1986) investigated the ability of Brazilian undergraduate students of EFL to distinguish main ideas from details in Portuguese and English expository texts. She wanted to find out whether there was a correlation between the amount of students' knowledge of the language and their difficulty in distinguishing main points from details. Students were administered an English proficiency test. Then, they were asked to read two expository texts - one in Portuguese and the other in English -, and, finally, to summarize the texts. Moreover, a questionnaire was applied to

students in order to investigate their use of reading strategies while summarizing. The results of this study indicated that the amount of knowledge of the foreign language did not affect the ability to identify the main ideas in the texts, since students had difficulty to select the main idea both in Portuguese and English.

Schemata are also of crucial importance in reading comprehension. Schemata (the plural of schema) are defined by researchers in the area as the knowledge about all concepts (objects, situations, events, actions, etc.) one has in his/her mind (Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1988). Other researchers have not used the term "schemata" but they were referring to a concept of the same kind when they stated that for comprehension to occur it is necessary that readers unite the knowledge they already have in their minds to the new information in the text (Bartlett, 1932; Ausubel, 1960; Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Freire, 1982).

In terms of main idea comprehension, Afflerbach (1990), examined the influence of content schemata, i. e., the knowledge the reader has about the subject area of a text, on his/her strategies used to construct main ideas. In this study, doctoral students from anthropology and chemistry, who were native speakers of English and were assumed to be expert readers, were asked to read aloud two texts from both a familiar and an unfamiliar knowledge domain. While reading, they were asked to report verbally their reading strategies which were recorded and analysed later.

groups. For each group a social science text appeared in four versions: (1) the original text; (2) an added diagram version, in which a tree diagram representing the main ideas of the text was included within the text; (3) an explained diagram version, in which a tree diagram was included in the text. In addition, an oral explanation of the information presented in the diagram was given; and finally, (4) an elaborated text version, in which the information of the text was highlighted by giving emphasis to the signalling of various cues in the text structure.

After reading one of the four versions of the text, students were asked to answer an achievement test, which tested their recall and comprehension; a questionnaire, which evaluated their interest and level of difficulty in relation to the text; and verbal and visual aptitude tests to control possible differences among groups.

The results of the study suggested that students who read the text with a diagram, especially the explained diagram version, outperformed those who read the original text and the elaborated text version on the reading comprehension measure. Thus, it seems that the diagram which clearly displayed the main ideas of the text had greater effect on students' visual memory, and therefore, facilitated their recall and reading comprehension. Yet, as the author says, further research on the functional use of different types of diagrams on different types of texts is needed.

In another study, Taylor (1982) investigated, in two similar experiments, the effects of

training in hierarchical summarization on fifth graders' comprehension and recall of expository text. There were two groups: an experimental and a control group.

The experimental group received instruction in hierarchical summarization. That is, they were taught to prepare outlines reflecting the organizational structure of passages from health and social science textbooks. These outlines included the main ideas of the texts. Then, they were asked to summarize the passages and to read their summaries. On the other hand, the control group received instruction on prereading activities before reading the same passages that were used in the experimental group. Then, they were asked to answer questions about the passages and to study their answers to the questions by reviewing them.

After the treatment, both experimental and control groups were asked to read two texts from the health and social science textbooks. Students in the experimental group were asked to write a summary of this material and study their summary. Students in the control group were asked to answer questions on the material and study their answers. Later on, both groups were asked to write down everything they could remember about the passages and answer questions about them.

The findings supported the author's hypothesis that the hierarchical summarization training, which dealt with main ideas had significantly higher scores on students' sensitivity to the organization of ideas in expository texts and on the memory tests. Some studies have investigated the influence that

the text itself may have on students' identification of main ideas. Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble (1989), for example, examined the effects of some text features on fourth, sixth and eleventh graders' main idea comprehension in two experiments. In study 1, the authors investigated students' analysis of two kinds of text with a listing structure: contrived texts, which are usually found in main idea skill lessons in basal readers and, naturally occurring texts, which are found in content area textbooks. The authors hypothesized that it would be more difficult for students to identify the main idea of naturally occurring texts since they are usually structurally more complex than contrived texts. Students were asked to read a certain number of paragraphs and to underline in each one the statement they thought was the main idea.

In the second study, the same students were asked to identify the main ideas of texts of four different structures: listing, sequence, cause/effect, and comparison/contrast. They were also asked to construct a statement of the main idea when it was not explicitly stated in the paragraphs. The authors hypothesized that texts with a structure different from listing would be more difficult to process for students who had not been instructed to identify the main idea in naturally occurring texts.

Findings indicated that students had more difficulty in identifying the main ideas in naturally occurring texts. The authors attributed this to the text structure. In contrived texts, the main ideas are usually stated at the beginning of

the text and students just have to apply the selection rule to find them. However, the main ideas of naturally occurring texts do not have a conventional position and, thus, students have to construct a mapping rule to find them and to delete nonsupporting details. The results also indicated that students had an increasing difficulty in identifying implicit main ideas and main ideas in listing, sequence, comparison/contrast, and cause/effect texts. Finally, they suggested that, in reading lessons, students should be given the opportunity to practice the identification of main ideas in naturally occurring texts.

Hare and Chesla (1986) investigated, in two experiments, the effects of three text variables - topic sentence position, explicitness of topic sentence and text structure - on eleventh-grade students' main idea comprehension. In study 1, students were asked to read and to underline the main ideas of nine paragraphs which appeared in three different forms, with the topic sentence in: (1) the initial position; (2) the medial position; or (3) the final position. The results of the study suggested that students who read the paragraphs with the topic sentences in the initial and final positions identified the main ideas with greater ease than those who read the paragraphs with the topic sentences in middle position.

In study 2, the same subjects were asked to read and to write the main ideas of ten paragraphs which appeared in two versions: with or without an explicit topic sentence. The paragraphs appeared in five different forms of text structures: (1) two paragraphs with listing structure; (2) two paragraphs

with problem-solution structure; (3) two paragraphs with cause-effect structure; (4) two paragraphs with comparison-contrast structure; and (5) two paragraphs with mixed structures. Results indicated that the main ideas are better identified in explicit topic sentence paragraphs. Also, students main idea comprehension seems to be facilitated when listing, problem-solution and cause-effect structures are present in the paragraphs. The authors state that subjects were able to identify well main ideas when the text was well organized and the main ideas were explicit.

Another line of research stresses the importance of giving students instruction on identifying main ideas to enhance students' reading comprehension. Although there seems to be only a small body of research in this area, the results of the few studies found in the literature have been encouraging.

Williams (1984), for example, developed a model of concept identification for instruction in reading comprehension of expository text. According to Williams, "at the time children are given instruction in text comprehension, they are highly proficient in their ability to categorize their world" (p. 875). Thus, to this author an effective instruction on main idea comprehension seems to rest on basic cognitive classification skills. That is, children are taught to identify the main ideas of a text similarly to the way they refer to a group of objects - by means of a category label. The author gives the following paragraph to exemplify how the model functions:

Cowboys had many important jobs to do. Cowboys had to protect the herd from cattle robbers. They had to brand cattle to show who owned them. They had to ride around the ranch to keep cattle from straying too far. (p. 874)

The last three sentences of this paragraph entail the meaning of the first sentence, which contains the main idea since it summarizes the whole text. However, to comprehend this paragraph, it is necessary that the reader identify the last three sentences as exemplars of the category jobs. If the reader has this concept understanding, the paragraph could have had the first sentence excluded and they would be equally able to generate a topic sentence for the paragraph.

In order to test the validity of her model, Williams developed a study with fourth and sixth graders. The students were asked to read 32 paragraphs in a single experimental session. Below each paragraph, there was a target sentence. The target sentence either was a detail sentence which exemplified the specific topic of discourse of the paragraph or not. Students were, then, asked to state whether the target sentence belonged to the paragraph or not. Half of the paragraphs appeared with topic sentences and half did not. Moreover, half of the paragraphs contained one sentence only (either a topic or detail sentence), and half of them contained three sentences (either the topic sentence plus two details or three detail sentences only). Results indicated that students were better able to determine whether a target sentence belonged to a paragraph when the number of exemplars was greater.

This model, however, did not address the issue of paragraphs in which the categories are not familiar to the subjects. In this case, even increasing the number of exemplars to a sequence of detail sentences would probably not lead to a better identification of main ideas due to the lack of students' content knowledge. The task of concept formation would have to be dealt with first. Thus, this model seems to be adequate mostly for texts with a well-formed structure in which students do not have to work with complexities. In more complex texts, some extra material, such as restatements of the main idea, nonsupporting details or information unrelated to the topic, are included, thereby utilizing a variety of text structures and increasing the processing demands (Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble, 1989).

In another study, Baumann (1984) investigated the effects of a direct instruction model for teaching identification of main ideas to sixth graders. Students were divided into three groups: (1) strategy group, (2) basal group, and (3) control group. High, medium and low achievement level students were randomly assigned to each group. All students received instruction over a two week and a half period.

In the strategy group, students were taught to identify explicit and implicit main ideas in paragraphs and in short passages, as well as to construct main idea outlines for short passages. Main idea was defined to them as "the most important statement the writer has presented to explain a topic" (p. 97).

The instructional strategy used in this group followed a direct paradigm, developed by the author, which required:

the teacher to be responsible for the academic focus, sequence of content, pupil engagement, monitoring, and corrective feedback, with a gradual shift of responsibility for learning from the teacher to the student as a lesson progressed (p.96).

Students in the basal group received instruction on main idea comprehension following a popular basal reader series "Ride the Sunrise". In the control group, students were engaged in lessons on vocabulary meaning development.

Five tests were developed by the experimenter to evaluate students' ability to comprehend main ideas and supporting details: (1) a 20-item multiple choice test which asked students to mark the best main idea for each paragraph; (2) a 15-item multiple choice test which asked students to mark the best supporting details for the main idea stated; (3) a 6-item multiple choice test, which asked the students to mark the main ideas of six different short passages (3-5 paragraphs in length); (4) a main idea outline test, which asked students to summarize in the form of an outline the main ideas of two short passages; and (5) a written free recall test on a short passage.

Results showed that the strategy group outperformed both basal and control groups in the ability to recognize main ideas and supporting details in paragraphs and passages as well as in the ability to compose outlines. Baumann attributed this to the direct instruction they had received, which probably gave them

an opportunity to practice and apply with greater understanding what they had been taught. Findings also indicated that more capable readers outperformed less capable readers in all measures. However, no difference among groups was found in their performance on the free recall test. This outcome, the author says, was probably due to the less capable readers' lack of familiarity with the exercise.

Sjostrom and Hare (1984) examined the effects of main idea instruction on native English speakers' general reading comprehension and summary writing. Subjects (ninth and tenth graders) were divided into two groups: a treatment group and a control group. The treatment group received instruction on main idea identification following the sequence and the direct paradigm developed by Baumann (1984). The control group received instruction in vocabulary development. Both groups were evaluated through three different pre and post-tests: (1) an experimenter-conducted test which measured students' main idea identification in paragraphs, (2) a summarization test in which students were asked to summarize a science passage, and (3) a standard reading comprehension test.

Results showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in the identification of both explicit and implicit main ideas. Students in the treatment group were also able to improve their summarization efficiency by increasing the number of main idea restatements in summary writing. Yet, their summarization performance was still far from optimal. Thus, the authors suggest that students' summarization skill

may be more effectively improved by direct instruction in summarization macro-rules. There was no significant difference between students' scores on the reading comprehension test either. The authors explained this result by stating that main idea comprehension may be too singular a skill to affect general comprehension measured by standardized tests which usually focus on comprehension of details.

Some researchers have tried to set "structural rules" for instruction on the identification of main ideas in expository texts. These rules are mainly stated in textbooks about reading and study skills. For example, Norman and Norman (1981), McCrea and Kemmerle (1985), and McWhorter (1986) claim that main ideas are commonly found in five different types of paragraphs: (1) in the deductive paragraph, in which the writer makes a general statement at the beginning and supports it with details; (2) in the inductive paragraph, in which the topic sentence is stated at the end of the paragraph; (3) in the paragraph in which the main idea is in the middle; (4) in the first and last sentence of the paragraph, in which the writer states the main idea at the beginning and then explains the idea, and finally restates it at the end; and (5) in the unstated main idea paragraph, in which the writer does not state the main idea of the paragraph but leaves it up to the reader to infer what the main idea is.

It is important, however, to add Pearson and Johnson's (1978) view that not all paragraphs contain main ideas. They point out that some of the main ideas within a passage are just enumerations of details. Thus, students should not be asked to

find main ideas in these types of paragraphs in any kind of text.

Jacobowitz (1990) also questions the efficacy of what she calls traditional main idea instruction. She contends that this type of instruction is based on "...the premise that the main idea is inherent in the text and can be located in specific portions of paragraphs" (p. 620). In her view, the reader cannot rely exclusively on the text but must also use other sources to identify or infer the main idea of a text. To this end, she developed a study to investigate, first, the way both skilled and unskilled adult readers look for main ideas in a text; and, second, the effects of a metacognitive strategy - Author's Intended Message (AIM) - on students' main idea identification in comparison to traditional main idea instruction. She defines AIM as a metacognitive strategy which entails various skills related to establishment of purpose, prereading, activation of background knowledge, prediction, determination of text organization, and critical evaluation. It is a metacognitive strategy that may be applied to any reading selection of any length.

In the first experiment, the author asked students in teacher education (considered skilled readers) and students in study skills classes (less skilled) to read a scientific passage and to write down what they considered to be the main ideas. Then, they were asked to answer a questionnaire describing how they looked for the main ideas. The less skilled students said that they looked for the main ideas in the first

sentences of the paragraphs, while the skilled students indicated that they first read the entire selection to get an overall impression of it in order to find the main ideas.

In this same experiment the author also asked five professors and five less skilled readers to read a selection and think aloud while they tried to find the main ideas. Results of the protocols suggested that the less skilled readers tried to find the main ideas in the text rather than to construct them. On the other hand, the skilled readers seemed to employ certain metacognitive strategies, such as, prereading, activating prior knowledge, etc., in order to find out the main ideas.

In the second experiment, the author evaluated the effectiveness of the AIM strategy. The subjects were undergraduate students. During three weeks, three experimental groups received instruction on the AIM strategy, while three control groups received instruction on the traditional main idea identification approach. Before treatment, a standard reading comprehension test was administered to all groups. After the treatment, students of both groups were asked to read a scientific passage and to answer a 16-item multiple choice comprehension test based on the text. Results showed that students who had received instruction on the AIM strategy outperformed those who had not.

The findings of the studies with native speakers of English reviewed in this section suggest that the identification of main ideas in a text plays an important role in students'

reading comprehension and recall of text content. Yet, as mentioned before, apparently various factors influence the readers' selection of what is important in a text: the text itself, the affective components of the readers, their linguistic knowledge and their schemata, and this makes it sometimes difficult to identify the main ideas in a text.

2.3. MAIN IDEA IDENTIFICATION AND SUMMARY WRITING SKILL

Some researchers claim that the summarization skill is linked to the identification of main ideas. This claim comes from the fact that the summarization skill is a study technique which involves the use of reading and writing skills and which demands the condensation of the original text into its gist (Brown and Day, 1983; Lima, 1984; Anderson and Armbruster, 1984; Souza e Silva, 1988; Cohen, 1988).

Studies developed to examine the psychological strategies used by summarizers have provided information related to the importance of the identification of main ideas in the summary writing skill. Taylor (1986) attempted to analyse fourth and fifth graders' performance on writing summaries of both narrative and expository texts to see if there was any difference between them. The summaries were written with the original text in hands and were evaluated in terms of accuracy/clarity, main ideas, brevity, and the use of the summarizers' own words. Results revealed no significant difference between the two modes of summarizing. The author concluded that probably the

students' inability to find and express the main idea was the major deficiency in their work.

In another study, Winograd (1984) investigated the strategic differences between eighth graders and adults as they summarized expository texts. All students were asked to read an expository text and to summarize it. Results showed that while poor readers (eighth graders) had different views from the author's about which idea in the text was important, good readers (adults), through the use of textual clues and their particular interest, were able to identify what the author of the text considered important. Apparently, good readers also used Kintsch and van Dijk's macro-rules - deletion, selection, generalization and construction - in a more efficient way than the eighth graders. Winograd speculates that the younger students' difficulties might be in condensing and transforming a passage into its gist. Based on these results, the author suggested that students should be taught to identify main ideas as well as to polish their summaries.

Few studies concerned with the psychological strategies used by EFL or ESL students while summarizing were carried out. Long and Harding-Esch (1978, in Sherrard, 1989) examined high proficient English students' performance in writing summaries in the first language of second language expository speeches. Results indicated that the summaries were poor in their selectivity of importance. The authors offered three hypotheses for this result: a lesser cognitive competence to select and organize main ideas in a second language, a linguistic

comprehension deficiency in the second language and a production deficit in the first language. Yet, more studies of this type need to be done so that this question may be clarified.

Cohen(1988) worked with five native Portuguese speakers through protocol analysis to investigate the way in which subjects at different proficiency English levels (high, medium and low) carried out the summarizing task on a reading comprehension test in English. Students were asked to write the summaries in Portuguese. Results suggest that all students were able to identify and select topic information, but apparently they did not know how much to delete and gave little attention to producing coherent summaries. They seemed to be more concerned with understanding the original texts than in writing text summaries. The task of summarizing, however, demands the use of both reading and writing skills.

There is another line of research dealing with the refinement of students' summarizing performance. Studies in this area have also indicated the importance of the skill of identifying main ideas in text to writing good summaries of texts. Hare and Borchardt (1984), for example, investigated the effects of two versions of summarizing instruction - deductive and inductive - upon junior high school students' summaries. The authors trained the students by teaching them Brown and Day's (1983) empirical versions of Kintsch and van Dijk's macro-rules which are: (1) deletion of trivial material; (2) deletion of redundant material; (3) substitution of a

superordinate term for a list of items; (4) substitution of a superordinate term for a list of actions; (5) selection of a topic sentence; and, (6) invention of a topic sentence. The authors also taught two additional rules: paragraph-combining and polishing summaries. Results revealed no significant difference between the two modes of training (deductive and inductive) but it seemed that the two types of instruction positively influenced students' use of summarization rules and the quality of their summaries. It was also observed that sensitivity to importance, i. e., the capacity to perceive important information, is a major feature of the summarization task, but probably the most difficult to be understood and taught.

In another study, Garner and McCaleb (1985) attempted to improve undergraduate students' text summarization performance by using three types of text manipulations: (1) cueing, that is, the use of signalling words which point out important information that should be paid attention to; (2) organization, that is, the way the information is distributed throughout the text; and, (3) reduction constraints, that is, a limit to the number of sentences allowed to be used in the summaries is imposed. Twelve different forms of an expository text were then constructed, using different levels of these text manipulations. The levels of cueing used were: (1) no cueing, (2) semantic cueing (explicit topic sentences for paragraphs containing four pieces of information judged most important in the text), and (3) semantic and lexical cueing (words such as

"important" or "central" within these topic sentences). The levels of organization used were: (1) massed (with the most important information appearing at the beginning of the first four paragraphs) and (2) distributed (with the same information distributed over the paragraphs). The constraints were to write summaries with either three or seven sentences. Students were then asked to read one of those modified forms of the text and to write a summary of it.

It was hypothesized that the students who received the texts which contained semantic and lexical cueing, massed organization and the three-sentence constraint would produce better summaries than the students who received the other forms of the text. Results suggested that the performance of students was not optimal in no outcome measure, regardless of treatment. However, the cueing manipulation apparently made a substantial difference in the students' summary quality, especially in the increase of number of important ideas presented. Subjects also made more combinations across sentences. Although they obeyed the constraint levels imposed in the task (either three or seven sentences), very few subjects were compelled to use less than the maximum number allowed. Moreover, it was observed that a greater number of words in the summary did not necessarily mean more important information included. The authors concluded that although text manipulations might help students to improve their summaries in some way, it seems that there is still a need to give direct summarization instruction to students in order to obtain better results.

Taylor and Beach (1984) compared the scores of seventh grade students who received instruction and practice in a hierarchical summary procedure after reading a text to the scores of seventh graders who only answered questions about the text, or received no special treatment in terms of comprehension and production. The summarization training procedure consisted of teaching students to make a skeleton outline which included thesis statement and main ideas and, then, having them study from their outline. There were three groups - experimental, conventional and control. All groups answered reading and writing pre and post tests. Results suggest that the experimental group had significant improvement in comprehension and recall of unfamiliar text over the other groups; their writing quality was also much better than that of the other groups.

Rinehart, Stahl and Erickson (1986) developed a summarization training program and measured the effects of this training upon sixth graders' reading and studying behaviours. There was an experimental and a control group. The students' studying behaviour was evaluated by product measures such as: retention of major and minor information from a long text, and process measures such as: the preparation time and quality of notes while studying. The students' reading behaviour was evaluated through two standardized pre tests: one in reading comprehension and the other in outlining, and through two post tests: one standardized test in outlining and a non-standardized summary test.

The training consisted of teaching the experimental group four summarization operations: (1) identifying/selecting main information; (2) deleting trivial information; (3) deleting redundant information; and (4) relating main and important supporting information, during a period of five days. These operations were taught by using a direct instruction and a self-control training. This training should allow the students to learn not only a procedure of summarizing but also how to monitor and evaluate the use of this procedure. The control group received instruction on reading skills which were not involved in summarization or main idea identification. Results indicated that the training improved the experimental groups' reading skill by enhancing recall of major but not minor information and improved students' summary writing quality. The experimental group apparently also improved their studying behaviour perhaps because of giving more attention to the task of reading.

In general, one could say that all studies reviewed in this section strongly suggest that effective summarizing of written text is intimately related to the identification of main ideas. Furthermore, researchers seem to share the view that the summarization task comprises both reading and writing skills. Thus, in order to improve students' efficacy in summarizing, it is suggested that they be given instruction both on finding main ideas in texts and on summary writing.

To sum up this chapter - the review of literature on the integration between reading and writing skills in the language

classroom, the identification of main ideas as an important sub-skill in reading comprehension, and the reciprocal effects between main idea identification in texts and written summarization of texts-, major areas related to the question of investigation of the present study, one could say the following:

First, research on the integration of reading and writing indicates that these skills have common characteristics and that instruction on both of them seems necessary in order to enhance students' comprehension, production and recall of expository texts (Shanahan, 1984; Taylor and Beach, 1984; Rinehart, Stahl and Erickson, 1986; Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan and McGinley, 1989).

Second, research in the area of main idea identification has revealed its importance to students' reading and oral comprehension due to their necessity of condensing text information into its gist (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Williams, 1984). Moreover, studies in this area have shown that when students are directed to identify the main ideas in a text by means of text manipulations or teacher instruction their sensitivity to importance is enhanced (Baumann, 1984; Sjoström and Hare, 1984; Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble, 1989; Afflerbach, 1990).

Finally, studies developed to examine the psychological strategies used by summarizers and the effects of instruction on summarizing have indicated that the identification of main

ideas is also an important skill in summary writing (Taylor and Beach, 1984; Hare and Borchardt, 1984).

In general, the literature reviewed in this section has shown that the identification of main ideas is an important technique which provides native English students with a certain amount of training in reading and in summarizing texts. But, EFL students seem to face problems in reading and writing that are similar to those faced by native speakers of English. Thus, they also need some training in this area. However, it seems that no research examining the effects of main idea instruction upon EFL students' reading comprehension and summarization has been developed so far.

The researcher of the present study hypothesized that since instruction on main idea identification has helped develop native English students' reading comprehension and summarization skills, it might also help develop EFL students' reading comprehension and summary writing skills. Thus, a methodology was developed for the investigation of the hypotheses. The following chapter will discuss this methodology in detail.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. SUBJECTS

Twenty-four low level EFL students of Colégio de Aplicação, a public school in Florianópolis, Santa Catarina, participated in the study. These students were enrolled in the second year of secondary school. At the beginning of the school year they were assigned to a 'low' level group of English. This classification was based on their scores on a test of English students had been submitted to at the end of the previous school year. Although the subjects belonged to this low level group, none of them had repeated a school year in English. The ages of these students ranged from 15 to 19 years with a mean age of 16. There were 15 boys and 9 girls. At Colégio de Aplicação they were attending two fifty-minute English classes a week, and instruction in these classes concentrated mostly on grammar. The teaching materials used were developed according to students' level of English by the English teachers of the school.

The students had already been assigned to two different classes, i. e., they had been divided into two groups, but not

in a random fashion, which will preclude any generalizations from the results of this study. The students had been distributed in the following way: 15 students in one group and 19 in the other. Despite the fact that the groups were previously set up, they were randomly assigned to an experimental group (15 students) and to a control group (19 students).

At the beginning of the experiment, both groups of students were submitted to an English language proficiency test (Appendix C) in order to find out how homogeneous they were in terms of English proficiency. The results are displayed in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1

Between group means: English proficiency test

TEST	CG	EG	P
	M	M	
GRAMMAR	9.8	10.9	1.52
VOCABULARY	5.6	6.7	1.73
TOTAL	15.4	17.6	1.72

MAXIMUM OF TOTAL POINTS (MTP): 40

M = Mean

P = Level of significance

Table 1 shows that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of their English language proficiency. That is, the null hypothesis, both in the grammar and vocabulary sections of the control and experimental groups' tests, was not rejected. Although the English language proficiency test was especially constructed for the subjects of the research, the subjects still had a low performance on their total results (CG = 15.4; EG = 17.6) when compared to the MTP possible. In addition, two reading comprehension pre-tests - one in English and one in Portuguese- were also administered (appendices E and I). The results of these tests can be seen in Table 3 in Chapter IV. Since three students from the experimental group and seven from the control group did not participate in all tests, they were eliminated from the analysis of data.

3.2. MATERIALS

3.2.1. Instructional materials

Forty-five paragraphs and nine complete expository texts that were unfamiliar to the students were used in the experiment for instruction on main idea identification. Some selections were original and some were adapted from English language or English reading textbooks. Although some researchers claim that it is important to give naturally occurring texts to students in their reading lessons (Hare, Rabinowitz and Schieble, 1989), in the present study, contrived texts were chosen since some factors which might influence students' comprehension (such as text structure and vocabulary) are less complex and more common in this type of texts in relation to the subjects' level. All passages were typed in a similar fashion and format in order to help the students' understanding and acquaintance with the new material.

The following criteria were taken into account for the selection of the passages: (1) the passages should not be too long; - the paragraphs contained between 70 and 200 words, and the whole selections, between 200 to 300 words, (2) the selections should contain general interest factual information.

Moreover, the researcher discussed these reading materials with the regular teachers of the two groups in order to see which of these reading materials would meet the subjects' interest and reading levels, as well as to find out how they would react towards expository texts.

From this pool of passages, nine paragraphs were chosen for instruction on each of the five different types of main idea paragraphs and the nine complete expository texts contained paragraphs with mixed types of main idea sentences (see appendix A).

3.2.2. Measuring Instruments

3.2.2.1. English Language Proficiency Test

An English language proficiency test was designed to assess the students' grammatical and vocabulary knowledge before treatment (see appendix C). The test was devised based on the International House-Hastings English Language Assessment Test, and on the English instructional program used by the school during the previous year and the months before the experiment was conducted.

The test consisted of a series of 40 multiple-choice questions, with four alternatives in each question. The test was divided in two parts. The first part, consisting of 24 questions, was concerned with the assessment of the students' grammatical knowledge. It included the following aspects: verb

tenses, pronouns, comparative forms, conjunctions, wh-questions, prepositions, gerund constructions and verb forms after modals. The second part, which evaluated the students' vocabulary, contained 16 questions. The vocabulary which was assessed was selected on the basis of its frequency in texts studied by the students during the previous year and the months before the experiment was conducted.

3.2.2.2. Reading Comprehension Tests

Four tests were used as measures of students' reading comprehension (see appendices E, G, I, K). Since the students were low level EFL learners, it was necessary to evaluate their reading comprehension both in Portuguese and in English to avoid any linguistic effects such as, the students' lack of some specific syntactic and/or semantic knowledge in English that could have influenced the results. Thus, an English reading comprehension test and a Portuguese reading comprehension test were administered to both groups of subjects before and after instruction. These tests were also devised by the researcher.

Each test consisted of 26 questions which were distributed over five sections specifically designed to test five different reading skills namely, active and passive vocabulary recognition, scanning, main idea identification and inference.

The first and second sections of the tests required the students to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words in context. The first part consisted of five multiple-choice questions with

four alternatives and, the second part consisted of five questions in which the students had to write the meaning of the underlined words. The words chosen were thought to be unfamiliar words but which were crucial in the overall comprehension of the texts.

In the third section, five questions were formulated to check the students' ability to scan through the texts looking for specific information. The fourth part required the students to write the main ideas of each paragraph of the texts (all four texts comprised five paragraphs).

Finally, in the fifth part the students' ability to make inferences was checked. In this last section, there were six statements which the students had to assign true or false and to justify their answers. The justifications of answers were required in order to avoid guessing.

In order to select the four texts used to evaluate the students' reading comprehension the following criteria were used: (1) the English texts should contain approximately the same number of words (between 200 to 300) since this was the length of the whole selections used during instruction; (2) The Portuguese texts could exceed the number of words of the longer passages used in instruction but they should be of a length that would allow students to read the texts and the questions, as well as write the answers to the questions within a fifty-minute period; finally, (3) both pairs of texts (Portuguese and English) should contain general factual information.

3.2.2.3. Text Summarization Tests

To assess students' ability to summarize expository texts before and after instruction, pre and post-tests were administered to them. At both times students were assigned to read and to summarize two texts. Each of these pairs of texts consisted of one in English and one in Portuguese (see appendices M, N, O, P). This was an attempt to avoid effects that could have occurred due to the students' low level of English proficiency. For the same reason, a glossary comprising potentially unfamiliar words was added to the English texts. The selection of the texts for the summarizing tests followed the same criteria of selecting the texts for the reading comprehension tests.

3.3. THE PILOT STUDY

In order to make the measuring instruments as reliable as possible they were pretested in a pilot study before carrying out the experiment. This pilot study was conducted with 14 students of the last year of secondary school of Colégio de Aplicação during their regular English classes with the permission of their teacher. This group was chosen since the students had some characteristics in common with the subjects of the experiment. The students of this group were also considered low level EFL students and they were around the same ages of the subjects in the experiment. Before beginning the pilot study, the researcher explained to the students the study

she was conducting and asked them to participate in the pilot study. They agreed to participate.

Three tests were then administered to these students. The English proficiency language test and the English reading comprehension pre and post-tests. In addition, students received three lessons on main idea identification (deductive main idea paragraphs, inductive main idea paragraphs and main ideas in longer passages). These lessons were given in order to verify the adequacy of the texts chosen to be given during instruction in terms of their difficulty and number of texts that could be covered in the lesson.

This pilot study confirmed the adequacy of the following aspects: (1) the time allotted to administer the tests, (2) the level of difficulty of the texts and, (3) the number of texts allotted for each lesson.

3.4. PROCEDURES

3.4.1. Testing Procedures

Pre and post-tests were administered to both control and experimental groups during a ten-day period before instruction and immediately following the last lesson on main idea identification.

All tests were conducted during the students' regular English class periods, with the exception of the Portuguese reading comprehension and the Portuguese summarizing tests. Due to lack of time, the students answered these tests at home but

they were orally instructed to answer the tests by themselves, in no more than 50 minutes and that they should not consult a dictionary.

All instructions about the testing, including the written ones, were given in Portuguese, so that students could have a clear understanding on how to answer the tests. Other researchers have also adopted the same procedure (Santos, 1986). For the summarizing tests students were asked to read the texts carefully as many times as they wished and to write unconstrained summaries, i. e., to write without limiting the number of words of their summaries. The texts were not removed while the students were writing their summaries since the summarization skill, not the retention or retrieval of information was of interest in this study. Moreover, in both the summarizing and reading comprehension tests, students were allowed to answer in Portuguese since their written performance in English was not being tested. Some researchers have already adopted this procedure before when their interest was restricted to the students' ability to summarize (Garner, 1982; Lima, 1984; Cohen, 1988).

The tests were administered by the experimenter to the experimental group and by the regular teacher to the control group.

3.4.2. Instructional Procedures

The experiment was carried out in June/July, 1989. Both experimental and control groups received nine lessons of 50

minutes each, with the instruction being given by the investigator to the experimental group and by the regular teacher to the control group. The lessons were distributed over a four and a half week period of time during the students' regular English classes. The initial plan for the experiment included 12 lessons instead of nine, but due to a teachers' strike at Colégio de Aplicação, the number of sessions had to be reduced. The three lessons that were eliminated comprised review sessions of the instruction given.

The materials used during these lessons were the same for both the experimental and the control groups and were distributed in the same order to the two groups.

Students in both groups were aware that the activities they were performing during that period were part of a study.

In the next two sections the specific procedures adopted for each group will be described.

3.4.2.1. Experimental group

The experimental group received main idea identification lessons adapted from Baumann's (1984) model of direct instruction on main ideas. This model consists of five steps which were repeated for lessons one through five. Added to these five steps was a homework component at the end of each lesson (except for lessons 6 and 9). A description of the steps follows: (For a complete transcription of a sample lesson see appendix B).

1. Introduction: In this step, a review of the previous lesson was made and, following this, the students were given an explanation of the content and the importance of the lesson of the day.
2. Example: A text containing an example of the skill to be taught was shown to students.
3. Direct instruction: The teacher guided the lesson by showing how students could use the specific skill.
4. Teacher-directed application: Students had to apply the skill previously taught in the reading of another text. In this step, the teacher still guided the students and gave feedback to them while they were working. This enabled the teacher to reteach the skill if necessary.
5. Independent practice: Students were provided with material to apply the skill independently. They had to underline the main ideas of the paragraphs or write them if the paragraphs were unstated main idea paragraphs. At the end of this activity, the teacher corrected the exercise in class.
6. Homework: Students were provided with texts to be read and answered at home by underlining the main ideas of the passages or writing them out when they were unstated.

A different procedure was adopted in lessons 6 and 9. In these lessons, which were just reviews of the skills taught in the previous lessons, subjects worked in pairs so that they could share their opinions about the content of the texts. At the end, the whole group together with the teacher discussed the main ideas in the texts. As to lesson 8, the second and the

third steps (example and direct instruction) were eliminated since the students had already received examples and instructions in lesson 7 on how to identify main ideas in longer passages. They only had to practice more this skill with texts which contained different types of main idea paragraphs.

The content of the lessons consisted of a hierarchy of main idea identification skills that led the students from finding the five possible different types of main ideas in isolated paragraphs to finding the same types of main ideas within longer passages. This sequence of main idea instruction has been suggested in the literature (Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Aulls, 1978; Garner, 1982; Baumann, 1984). The following is a brief description of each lesson (See appendix A for the complete versions of the texts used in each lesson):

Lesson 1: Deductive main idea paragraphs. Students were taught to identify the main idea at the beginning of the paragraph and to associate the supporting details.

Lesson 2: Inductive main idea paragraphs. Students were taught to identify the main idea at the end of the paragraph and to associate the supporting details.

Lesson 3: Main idea in the middle of paragraphs. Students were taught to identify the main idea in the middle of the paragraph and to associate the supporting details.

Lesson 4: First and last sentences of paragraphs. Students were taught to identify the main idea in the first and last sentences of a paragraph and to associate the supporting details.

Lesson 5: Unstated main idea paragraphs. Students were taught to infer the main idea of the paragraph, based on the details.

Lesson 6: Review, reinforcement and practice of all types of main idea paragraphs.

Lesson 7: Mixed main ideas in longer passages. Students were taught to identify different types of main ideas in longer passages. They were also taught to relate these main ideas to the overall theme.

Lesson 8: Mixed main ideas in longer passages. Students continued to practice the skill of identifying main ideas in longer passages.

Lesson 9: Review, reinforcement and practice of lesson 7 and 8.

3.4.2.2. Control Group

Students in the control group received instruction on vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. The regular teacher used the material developed by the investigator to focus on the following aspects in each lesson: modals, verb tenses, comparative forms, conjunctions, prepositions, plural forms, gerund and pronouns. The vocabulary was developed by means of translation and other activities with sentences that contained words or expressions from the texts. None of these lessons involved main idea identification or summarizing, and, throughout the study, the investigator was in contact with the teacher both to solve problems and to make sure that the lessons were being carried out as planned.

3.5. SCORING

3.5.1. English Language Proficiency Test

This test was scored by the researcher herself. Each right answer was attributed one point (See appendix D for answer key of test) up to a total of 40 points, twenty-four of these on grammar and 16 points on vocabulary. Thus, if one subject had answered correctly 20 questions of the grammar section and 10 questions of the vocabulary section, he/she would receive a total score of 30 points. This raw score was then, statistically analysed (see chapter 4 for further explanation of the statistical analysis).

3.5.2. English and Portuguese Reading Comprehension Tests

These tests were also scored by the researcher herself. Before preparing the tests, the researcher made a list of the expected correct answers for each test to be used as a guide to mark students' answers (See appendices F, H, J, L). For all tests 1 point was attributed to each completely correct answer and a 0.5 point to answers which were half or partially correct. Each test had 26 questions. Thus, a student had a chance to make a total of 26 points: 10 points on the vocabulary section which was divided into two parts: 05 questions which evaluated the students' multiple choice answers and 05 questions which evaluated the students' written answers;

05 points on the scanning section; 05 points on the main idea section; and finally, 06 points on the inference section.

3.5.3. Summarization tests of the English and Portuguese texts

Despite the number of studies that have been developed involving summary writing (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Brown and Day, 1983; Winograd, 1984; Sjoström and Hare, 1984), there is still a lack of systematization concerning measurement methods for scoring summaries. This might be due to the complexity of the task itself which involves analysing the content of the summaries and, also, the structural features of the summaries, i. e., the use of students' own words, their ability to condense material, to follow a sequence of ideas and, to construct sentences that convey the meaning of the whole sentences in the original text (Brown and Day, 1983; Garner and McCaleb, 1985).

Thus, for this study, a scale of values was developed as an attempt to assess the content and the structural quality of the subjects' summaries. The content of the students' summaries, that is, the ideas included in the summaries and the level of importance of these ideas in relation to the original text were analysed according to a scale.

The scale consisted of three parts. Each part corresponded to a class of ideas. The ideas in all four texts that students had to summarize were classified into three categories according to their level of importance in the texts: (1) main

ideas; (2) secondary ideas; and (3) details. In order to arrive at this classification, the researcher first asked 20 independent judges (19 graduate students of English and one professor of English) to rate each sentence in the texts considering the importance of the information contained in the sentence. The people chosen to rate the sentences were considered fit for this task since all of them are proficient in Portuguese and English and are familiar with the reading strategy of distinguishing main ideas from secondary ideas and details in a text. These judges received oral and written instructions on how to proceed while rating the sentences. They had to attribute a value to each sentence according to the following criteria: (a) a sentence that contained very important information that should appear in some form in a text summary, received a 3; (b) a sentence that contained moderately important information that might or might not appear in the summary of a text, a 2; and (c) a sentence that contained unimportant information that should not appear in any form in a text summary, a 1 (See appendix Q for an example of how instructions were given and how the sentences were distributed in order to be classified). Based on these ratings, the researcher organized the scale (See appendix R).

This procedure of classifying important, less important and unimportant sentences in a text summary by using independent judges was devised and tested by Johnson (1970) and later used by various other researchers in their studies (Garner, 1982; Sjostrom and Hare, 1984; Hare and Borchardt,

1984; Garner and McCaleb, 1985). According to these authors, the subjectivity present in this type of measurement can be diminished by obtaining a prior consensus between markers in relation to importance of ideas in the original text before assessing the students' summaries.

Finally, the content of the subjects' summaries were scored according to a scale. Students received a 7 for each main idea, a 4 for each secondary idea, and a 1 for each detail present in their summaries. Although there is some consensus on judgement measures of the content in a text (Johnson, 1970; Brown and Day, 1983; Garner, 1982), there is still difficulty among researchers to arrive at a precise definition of structural criteria of summary quality probably due to the deep level structure that the summarizer uses which is not easily specified (Sherrard, 1989).

Yet, when researchers' structural measures of summary quality are compared, some points of likeness emerge, such as the ones already mentioned: the use of the readers' own words, the ability to condense material, the ability to follow a sequence in the presentation of ideas, and the ability to invent sentences conveying the meaning of whole sentences in the original text (Brown, Day and Jones, 1983; Winograd, 1984; Garner and McCaleb, 1985, Taylor, 1986).

In the present study, the aforementioned structural features were analysed according to Winograd's (1984) structural criteria. Thus, a student's summary received a score of 1 for each reproduction rule used, that is, when the subject

reproduced individual sentences in the original text by paraphrasing and copying. A score of 4 was given for each run-on combination used, that is, when elements from several sentences in the original passage had been included in the summary but in a less organized fashion than combination. A score of 7 was given for each combination rule applied, that is, when subjects condensed the ideas into few words or sentences. Finally, a score of 10 was given for each invention rule used, that is, when subjects produced sentences which conveyed the meaning of several sentences of the original passage. The raw scores were then statistically analyzed and compared to the content results, since a mature summary performance entails both content and structural features.

In the next chapter the description and analysis of the data has been presented.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Preliminaries

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of teaching main idea identification on the comprehension and summarization of expository texts of Brazilian high school students of EFL. Twenty-four low level EFL secondary students from a public school participated in this study. These students were divided in two groups - control group (CG) and experimental group (EG) - and received different types of instruction as presented in the previous chapter.

The students' English and Portuguese Reading comprehension was measured through pre and post tests with multiple choice and open - ended items, and their summary writing was tested before and after instruction in main idea identification by having them summarize the texts they had read.

Results of the data were then analysed through two statistical tests: (1) the difference of means test for small independent samples of equal size and, (2) the difference of means test for small dependent matched pairs samples. These tests were performed on

the data by using the Turbo Pascal package of statistical program offered by Professor Dr. Giles L. Istre on a PC-Itautec model computer, available at UFSC.

The difference of means test for small independent samples of equal size (between groups) was used for the confrontation among the following tests administered to subjects of the CG and the EG:

1. English language proficiency test
2. English reading comprehension pre-test
3. English reading comprehension post-test
4. Portuguese reading comprehension pre-test
5. Portuguese reading comprehension post-test
6. English summarizing pre-test
7. English summarizing post-test
8. Portuguese summarizing pre-test
9. Portuguese summarizing post-test

The difference of means test for small dependent matched pairs samples (within groups) was performed on the following tests:

1. English reading comprehension pre and post-tests of the control group.
2. English reading comprehension pre and post-tests of the experimental group.
3. Portuguese reading comprehension pre and post-tests of the control group.
4. Portuguese reading comprehension pre and post-tests of the experimental group.
5. English and Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests of the control group.
6. English and Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests of the experimental group.
7. English and Portuguese reading comprehension post-tests of the control group.
8. English and Portuguese reading comprehension post-tests of the experimental group.
9. English summarization pre and post-tests of the control group.
10. English summarization pre and post-tests of the experimental group.
11. Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests of the control group.
12. Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests of the experimental group.
13. English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests of the control group.
14. English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests of the experimental group.
15. English and Portuguese summarization post-tests of the control group.

16. English and Portuguese summarization post-tests of the experimental group.

All the results of these tests were analysed at a .05 level of significance ($p < .05$). In this chapter the results of the reliability test, the statistical tests between and within groups of the reading comprehension tests, and the summarization tests will first be presented and, then, discussed. For clarity, the means and levels of significance of the results are presented rather than raw scores (for the raw scores see appendix S).

4.2. Reliability Test

TABLE 2

Between group correlation: the English and Portuguese pre and post-tests

	EG	CG
	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>
English reading comprehension pre and post-tests	0.2	0.7
Portuguese reading comprehension pre and post-test	0.5	0.5
English versus Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests	0.2	0.5
English versus Portuguese reading comprehension post-test	0.5	0.2
English summarization pre and post-tests (content)	0.3	0.6
English summarization pre and post-tests (structure)	0.2	0.3
Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests (content)	0.3	0.3
Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests (structure)	0.4	0.5
English versus Portuguese summarization pre-tests (content)	0.4	0.3
English versus Portuguese summarization post-tests (structure)	0.4	0.3
English versus Portuguese summarization post-tests (content)	0.1	0.3
English versus Portuguese summarization post-tests (structure)	0.2	0.3

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

The correlation between the scores of each pair of pre and post-tests used in this study was estimated using the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 2. As can be seen, the English reading comprehension pre and post-tests and the content section of the English summarization tests of the CG have a good reliability ($r = 0.7$; $r = 0.6$, respectively); while the Portuguese reading comprehension tests of both groups, the English versus Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests of the CG, the English versus Portuguese reading comprehension post-tests of the EG, and the structure section of the Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests of the CG have a reasonable coefficient of reliability ($r = 0.5$). However, the remaining tests all show considerably low coefficients of reliability. Thus, the results of this study should be interpreted with caution, having in mind the low reliability of most of the tests used in the study.

4.3. Reading Comprehension Tests

4.3.1. Results Between Groups

As shown in table 3, all comparisons between the CG and the EG in their English and Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests were not significant ($p > .05$). These results indicate that the CG and the EG were homogeneous in terms of their English and Portuguese reading comprehension abilities before treatment. However, the total means of the CG and the EG both in English and in Portuguese show

that both groups had a low performance in their reading comprehension abilities.

TABLE 3

Between group means: English and Portuguese reading
comprehension pre-tests

PRE TESTS	ENGLISH			PORTUGUESE		
	CG	EG	P	CG	EG	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	5.8	6.1	0.68	6.6	7.2	0.38
Scanning	3.1	3.4	0.55	3.7	4.0	0.42
Main idea	1.0	1.4	0.32	0.7	0.8	0.71
Inference	3.2	1.9	1.96	2.3	2.8	0.31
TOTAL	13.1	12.8	0.84	13.3	14.8	0.28

NTP = 26

On the other hand, table 4 shows that all comparisons between the CG and the EG, in post-test condition of English and Portuguese reading comprehension tests were significantly different at $p < .05$. The only exception occurred with the results of the comparison between the CG and the EG in the inference section of the English comprehension post-test. There was no statistically significant difference between groups although the EG had a greater mean (4.6) than the CG (4.2).

Thus, total results show that the EG outperformed the CG in terms of reading comprehension ability, after treatment.

TABLE 4
Between group means: English and Portuguese reading
comprehension post-tests

POST TESTS	ENGLISH			PORTUGUESE		
	CG	EG	P	CG	EG	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	2.6	8.1	0.00001*	4.9	6.6	0.02*
Scanning	2.2	3.7	0.005*	1.6	4.7	0.00003*
Main idea	1.2	3.4	.0001*	0.8	4.0	0.0001*
Inference	4.2	4.6	.5	3.2	4.7	0.006*
TOTAL	10.2	19.8	0.00001*	10.5	20.0	0.00003*

MTP = 26

* = significant difference between means.

4.3.2. Results Within Groups

Table 5 presents the means and levels of significance from the calculations for the difference between means within groups, when the scores on the pre-tests of reading comprehension in English

are compared to those on the post-tests.

TABLE 5

Within group means: English reading comprehension pre and post-tests

ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION TESTS	CG			EG		
	PRE	POST	P	PRE	POST	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	5.8	2.6	0.00005*	6.1	8.1	0.07
Scanning	3.1	2.2	0.02*	3.4	3.7	0.5
Main idea	1.0	1.2	0.7	1.4	3.4	0.002*
Inference	3.2	4.2	0.1	1.9	4.6	0.0008*
TOTAL	13.1	10.2	0.008*	12.8	19.8	0.0003*

Results in table 5 show that there were some significant differences between the scores on the English reading comprehension pre and post-tests for both the control and the experimental groups: 1) the CG had higher means on the pre-test than on the post-test, except for the main idea and inference sections. Calculations for the difference of means within this group show that the differences between the total means, the vocabulary, and the scanning sections were statistically significant ($p = 0.008$; $p = 0.00005$; $p = 0.02$, respectively); 2) the EG performed better on the post-test than on the pre-test. Results show that the differences between the total means, the main idea, and the inference sections were statistically

significant ($p = 0.0003$; $p = 0.002$; $p = 0.008$, respectively). Although the results of the EG for the vocabulary and scanning sections on the post-test were not significantly different, the means for these sections were higher on the post-test than on the pre-test.

Table 6 presents means and levels of significance from the calculations for the difference between means within groups on the Portuguese reading comprehension test. Results show that: 1) the CG also performed better on the pre-test than on the post-test. Although the CG had no significant differences except for the vocabulary ($p = 0.03$) and scanning ($p = 0.003$) sections, the total mean of the pre-test ($M = 13.3$) was higher than that of the post-test ($M = 10.5$); 2) on the other hand, almost all results of the EG were statistically significant, that is, the EG performed better in all sections on the post-test than on the pre-test, except for the vocabulary section ($M = 6.6$ on post-test, and $M = 7.2$ on pre-test).

TABLE 6

Within group means: Portuguese reading Comprehension pre and post-tests

PORTUGUESE READING COMPREHENSION TESTS	CG			EG		
	PRE	POST	P	PRE	POST	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	6.6	4.9	0.03*	7.2	6.6	0.05
Scanning	3.7	1.6	0.003*	4.0	4.7	0.005*
Main idea	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.8	4.0	0.0003*
Inference	2.3	3.2	0.2	1.8	4.7	0.001*
TOTAL	13.3	10.5	0.08	14.8	20.0	0.00007*

Calculations for the differences between means of scores on the English versus Portuguese reading comprehension pre and post-tests of the CG and the EG were also performed.

TABLE 7

Within group means: English and Portuguese reading
comprehension pre-test

PRE READING COMPREHENSION TESTS	CG			EG		
	ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P	ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	5.8	6.6	0.8	6.1	7.2	0.1
Scanning	3.1	3.7	0.02*	3.4	4.0	0.2
Main idea	1.0	0.7	0.4	1.4	0.8	0.1
Inference	3.2	2.3	0.2	1.9	2.8	0.02*
TOTAL	13.1	13.3	0.9	12.8	14.8	0.07

The levels of significance displayed in table 7 show that both the CG and the EG were homogenous on the English and Portuguese reading comprehension pre-tests. There were only two slightly significant differences in favor of the Portuguese reading comprehension test: 1) the CG had a greater mean on the scanning section of the Portuguese test than on the English test ($M = 3.7$; $M = 3.1$); and 2) the EG had a higher mean on the inference section of the Portuguese test than on the English test ($M = 2.8$; $M =$

i.9). The total means of the EG and the CG, however, reveal that both groups had slightly greater means in the Portuguese test.

As shown in table 8, the differences between means of scores on the English versus Portuguese reading comprehension post-tests of the CG and the EG were non-significant. The only exceptions were: 1) the CG had a higher mean on the inference section of the English test than on the inference section of the Portuguese test ($M = 4.2$; $M = 3.2$); and 2) the EG performed better in the English test than in the Portuguese test in terms of vocabulary ($p = 0.04$) and better in the Portuguese test in terms of scanning ($p = 0.01$) than in the English test.

TABLE 8

Within group means: English and Portuguese reading
comprehension post-tests

POST READING COMPREHENSION TESTS	CG			EG		
	ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P	ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P
	M	M		M	M	
Vocabulary	2.6	4.9	0.05	8.1	6.6	0.04*
Scanning	2.2	1.6	0.5	3.7	4.7	0.01*
Main idea	1.2	0.8	0.5	3.4	4.0	0.3
Inference	4.2	3.2	0.02*	4.6	4.7	0.9
TOTAL	10.2	10.5	0.2	19.8	20.0	0.8

4.4. Summarization Tests

4.4.1. Results Between Groups

Table 9 presents the means and levels of significance for the subjects' performance on the English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests.

TABLE 9
Between group means: English and Portuguese summarization
pre-tests

		ENGLISH			PORTUGUESE		
PRE							
SUMMARIZATION		CG	EG	P	CG	EG	P
TESTS		M	M		M	M	
	MI	28.6	32.1	0.1	21.0	21.0	1.0
	SI	7.3	9.3	0.1	4.0	4.3	0.8
CONTENT	DETAILS	2.3	2.4	0.7	2.0	2.4	0.3
	TOTAL	38.2	43.8	0.06	27.0	27.7	0.8
	REP	6.4	5.2	0.3	2.7	2.7	1.0
	R-COMB	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	4.3	0.009*
STRUCTURE	COMB	2.9	3.5	0.7	4.7	5.3	0.8
	INV	0.8	1.7	0.5	0.8	2.5	0.3
	TOTAL	10.8	11.1	0.8	9.2	14.8	0.1

MI = main ideas

SI = secondary ideas

REP = reproduction

R-COMB = run-on-combination

INV = invention

Maximum of English content points (MEC) = 51

Maximum of Portuguese content points (MPC) = 66

Maximum of English structural points (MES) = 12

Maximum of Portuguese structural points (MPS) = 15

Calculations for the difference of means between total scores of the CG and the EG both in the English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests yielded no statistically significant difference at $p > .05$. These results also reveal: First, that the CG and the EG were homogeneous in terms of summarization abilities before treatment. Second, no statistically significant difference was found between groups in the calculations of the total scores for the content section. However, it was observed that both groups, in particular the EG, included the three types of ideas, especially the details (maximum of English detail points = 4 and maximum of Portuguese detail points = 5). Third, no statistically significant difference was found between groups in the calculation of the total scores of the structural section. The only exception is the higher frequency of run-on-combinations used by the experimental group in the Portuguese tests ($p < .05$). The EG also had greater means in the combination and invention rules both in the English and Portuguese tests than the CG. Fourth, both groups showed a low summarization performance when their means were compared to the maximum of content and structural points.

Table 10 shows the means and levels of significance for the subjects' performance on the English and Portuguese summarization post-tests.

TABLE 10

Between group means: English and Portuguese summarization
post-tests

POST SUMMARIZATION TEST		ENGLISH			PORTUGUESE		
		CG M	EG M	P	CG M	EG M	P
CONTENT	MI	35.0	39.6	0.3	18.1	32.6	0.0003*
	SI	22.3	11.0	0.002*	14.3	11.0	0.2
	DETAILS	1.3	0.5	0.01	1.7	0.2	0.000001*
	TOTAL	58.6	51.1	0.04*	34.2	43.8	0.05
STRUCTURE	REP	5.0	4.3	0.4	1.9	2.8	0.2
	R-COMB	0.7	0.7	1.0	2.3	1.0	0.2
	COMB	3.5	12.2	0.006*	4.1	5.3	0.6
	INV	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.7	0.5
	TOTAL	10.0	18.0	0.07	9.1	10.8	0.3

Maximum of English content points (NEC) = 90

Maximum of Portuguese content points (MPC) = 81

Maximum of English structural points (MCS) = 18

Maximum of Portuguese structural points (MPS) = 18.

The results displayed in table 10 show that: 1) between the scores of the CG and those of the EG on the summarization post-tests there was a significant difference at $p < .05$, yet only in the English total content section ($p = 0.04$); 2) although the difference between groups for the Portuguese total content section was not statistically significant ($p = 0.05$), the EG included more main ideas and fewer details than the CG; 3) differences between the CG and the EG for the English and Portuguese structural section were non-significant ($p > .05$). However, the EG made more combinations in the English summarization post-test ($M = 12.2$), and fewer reproductions ($M = 4.3$) than the CG.

4.4.2. Results Within Groups

Table 11 presents the means and levels of significance from the calculations for the difference between means within groups performed on the scores of the summarization tests in English.

TABLE 11

Within group means: English summarization pre and post-tests

ENGLISH		CG			EG		
SUMMARIZATION							
TESTS		PRE	POST	P	PRE	POST	P
		M	M		M	M	
	MI	28.6	35.0	0.01*	32.1	39.6	0.02*
	SI	7.8	22.3	0.02*	9.3	11.0	0.001*
CONTENT	DETAILS	2.3	1.3	0.3	2.4	0.5	0.01*
	TOTAL	38.2	58.6	0.03*	43.8	51.1	0.0001*
	REP	6.4	5.0	0.01*	5.2	4.3	0.007*
	R-COMB	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.0
STRUCTURE	COMB	2.9	3.5	0.6	3.5	12.2	0.05*
	INV	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.7	0.8	0.4
	TOTAL	10.8	10.0	0.4	11.7	18.0	0.04*

Results in table 11 show that there were some significant differences between the pre and post-test scores of both the control and the experimental groups. Calculations for the difference

between means within groups in the English summarization test show that: 1) the means of the CG were significantly different on the content part of the test with the exception of the detail section ($p = 0.3$), that is, the CG included more details in the pre-test than in the post-test ($M = 2.3$; $M = 1.3$); 2) the CG had no significant differences on the structural part of the test, except on the reproduction section, that is, this rule was more used in the pre-test than in the post-test ($M = 6.4$; $M = 5.0$); 3) the EG had higher means on the content part of the post-test than on the pre-test. Calculations for the difference of means within this group show that all the differences were statistically significant; 4) the EG also had higher means on the entire structural section of the English post-test than on the pre-test ($p = 0.04$); the EG group especially constructed fewer reproductions and more combinations in the post-test than in the pre-test.

Table 12 shows the means and levels of significance for scores on the Portuguese summarization pre versus post tests of the control and the experimental groups.

TABLE 12

Within group means: Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION TESTS		CG			EG		
		PRE M	POST M	P	PRE M	POST M	P
CONTENT	MI	21.0	18.1	0.9	21.0	32.6	0.001*
	SI	4.0	14.3	0.5	4.3	11.0	0.6
	DETAILS	2.0	1.7	0.09	2.4	0.2	0.00002*
	TOTAL	27.0	34.2	0.2	27.7	43.8	0.001*
STRUCTURE	REP	2.7	1.9	0.01*	2.7	2.8	0.7
	R-COMB	1.0	2.3	0.4	4.3	1.0	0.01*
	COMB	4.7	4.1	0.5	5.3	5.3	1.0
	INV	0.8	0.8	1.0	2.5	1.7	0.5
	TOTAL	9.2	9.1	0.8	14.8	10.8	0.1

In relation to the Portuguese summarization test, results show that: 1) no statistically significant difference was found between the content section of the pre and post-test for the CG ($p = 0.2$); 2) there were no significant differences between the pre and post-tests on structural section either, except on the reproduction rule ($M = 2.7$; $M = 1.9$); 3) the EG had better results on the content part of the Portuguese post-test than on the pre-test. The only exception was with the secondary ideas section ($p = 0.6$); 4) no significant difference was found between the structural part of the Portuguese pre and post-tests for the EG, with the exception of the greater frequency of run-on-combinations in the pre-test ($M = 4.3$). These results show that the CG had no improvement in the content neither in the structural sections in summarizing text in Portuguese, at the end of the experiment. Yet, the EG apparently improved in the content but not in the structural section of the summarization test.

Calculations for the differences between means of subjects' scores on the English and the Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests were also performed. Table 13 contains these results.

TABLE 13

Within group means: English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests

SUMMARIZATION		CG			EG		
PRE							
TESTS		ENGLISH PORTUGUESE P			ENGLISH PORTUGUESE P		
		M	M		M	M	
	MI	28.6	21.0	0.000004*	32.1	21.0	0.000001*
	SI	7.3	4.0	0.05	9.3	4.3	0.02*
CONTENT	DETAILS	2.3	2.0	0.1	2.4	2.4	1.0
	TOTAL	38.2	27.0	0.000004*	43.8	27.7	0.000001*
	REP	6.4	2.7	0.0002*	5.2	2.7	0.004*
	R-COMB	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.7	4.3	0.008*
STRUCTURE	COMB	2.9	4.7	0.7	3.5	5.3	0.4
	INV	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.7	2.5	0.8
	TOTAL	10.8	9.2	0.4	11.1	14.8	0.1

The results displayed in table 13 show that: 1) both the CG and the EG had statistically significant differences on the content part between the English and the Portuguese summarization pre-tests ($p = 0.000004$, for the CG; $p = 0.000001$ for the EG). Subjects from the CG included more main ideas in the English test ($M = 28.6$) than in the Portuguese test ($M = 21.0$), and subjects from the EG included more main and secondary ideas in the English test ($M = 32.1$; $M = 9.3$); 2) Neither the CG nor the EG had statistically significant differences between the total means on the structural section of the tests.

However, the CG used more reproductions in the English summarization pre-test ($M = 6.4$) than in the Portuguese one ($M = 2.7$), and the EG also used more reproductions in the English test ($M = 5.2$), but this group used more run-on-combinations in the Portuguese summarization pre-test ($M = 4.3$).

TABLE 14

Within group means: English and Portuguese summarization post-tests

SUMMARIZATION		CG			EG		
POST							
TESTS		ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P	ENGLISH	PORTUGUESE	P
		M	M		M	M	
	MI	35.0	18.1	0.1	39.6	32.6	0.3
	SI	22.3	14.3	0.02*	11.0	11.0	0.1
CONTENT	DETAILS	1.3	1.7	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3
	TOTAL	58.6	34.2	0.008*	51.1	43.8	0.2
	REP	5.0	1.9	0.01*	4.3	2.8	0.04*
	R-COMB	0.7	2.3	0.09	0.7	1.0	0.5
STRUCTURE	COMB	3.5	4.1	0.8	12.2	5.3	0.02*
	INV	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.7	0.3
	TOTAL	10.0	9.1	0.7	18.0	10.8	0.01*

The results in table 14 show the differences between means of scores on the English and the Portuguese summarization post-tests. It can be seen that: 1) the CG had higher means for the content

section on English ($M = 58.6$, English; $M = 34.2$, Portuguese). The CG group especially used more secondary ideas in their summaries of the English text than in those of the Portuguese text ($M = 22.3$; $M = 14.3$); 2) no statistically significant difference was found between the content sections of the English and Portuguese tests in favor of the EG ($p = 0.2$), although this group included more main ideas in the English test ($M = 39.6$) and fewer details in the Portuguese test ($M = 0.2$); 3) no statistically significant difference was found in the structural sections for the CG in the summarization post-tests. The only exception was that the CG used more reproductions in the English ($M = 5.0$) than in the Portuguese summarization test ($M = 1.9$) and more run-on-combinations and combinations in the Portuguese ($M = 2.3$; $M = 4.1$) than in the English test ($M = 0.7$; $M = 3.5$); 4) there was a statistically EG had a significant difference in the structural part of the summarization test in favor of the EG ($p = 0.01$). This group used more reproductions ($M = 4.3$) and combinations ($M = 12.2$) in the English test than in the Portuguese test.

4.5. Discussion

The results presented above will be interpreted in the light of the two hypotheses presented in the first chapter.

4.5.1. Hypothesis 1

The instruction on detecting main ideas in expository texts improves students' reading comprehension.

This hypothesis was checked against - the findings of statistical tests applied between and within groups on the scores on the English and Portuguese reading comprehension tests of the control and the experimental groups. The statistical test performed to compare the groups in relation to the reading comprehension pre-tests showed no significant difference between the two groups (see table 3).

This outcome indicates that both groups were homogeneous in terms of reading comprehension ability both in English were homogeneous, they also had a low performance in their reading comprehension pre-tests. This seems to confirm the problems that high school students meet when required to read texts. According to the results of the EG and the CG in table 3, the subjects don't seem to have had instruction on reading skills either in Portuguese or in English. The type of training that these students had been having doesn't seem to fit their future reading necessities at the University which demand, among other skills, the identification of main idea.

The significant results of the statistical test applied on the comparison between the EG and the CG both in the English and Portuguese reading comprehension post-tests, displayed in table 4, showed that the EG outperformed the CG in reading comprehension ability after treatment. The performance of the EG, though, was not significantly better than that of the CG on inferencing: but the EG

still had a greater mean than the CG ($M = 4.6$; $M = 4.2$) and had a better performance on the post-test than on the pre-test ($M = 2.9$).

These outcomes indicate that the instruction on main idea identification given to the EG during treatment may have directly influenced the experimental group's general reading comprehension. It seems that the EG had the opportunity to practice and to apply with greater understanding what they had been taught in other expository texts. And, although the result of the EG with regard to inferencing in English was not significantly different from the CG, it seems that the instruction on main idea identification enabled the subjects of the EG to develop their own strategies and to use them to overcome any problem that might have appeared while reading the texts.

The results of the statistical tests applied on the comparison within groups both in Portuguese and in English stressed the influence that the instruction on main idea identification might have had on the positive outcomes of the EG. As shown in table 5 and 6, subjects of the experimental group had a better reading comprehension performance in both English and Portuguese post-tests than in the pre-tests. On the other hand, subjects of the control group had no significant statistical difference on their English neither on their and Portuguese reading comprehension pre and post tests. The EG, however, had greater means in the English and Portuguese pre-tests. This outcome indicates that although the CG received instruction on vocabulary meaning, it was not sufficient to develop their reading comprehension abilities.

Finally, comparisons between the English and the Portuguese reading comprehension tests of both groups revealed no statistically significant difference. Yet, tables 7 and 8 show that the EG and the

CG had greater means in the Portuguese pre and post-tests than in the English pre and post-tests. This outcome suggests that linguistic knowledge seems to have affected the subjects' general comprehension since they had better results in the Portuguese tests than in the English tests. In sum, all the results of this study guide us to the conclusion that the instruction on detecting main ideas in expository texts seems to improve students' reading comprehension.

4.5.2. Hypothesis 2

The instruction on detecting main ideas in expository texts improves students' ability to summarize.

The following results were used in order to check this hypothesis: First, the statistical test performed on the comparison between the EG and the CG both in the English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests showed no significant difference on the total results between the two groups (see table 9). Yet, it was observed that both groups included in their English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests a great number of all types of ideas (main ideas, secondary ideas, and details) and all types of rules, except the invention rule. Second, as shown in table 10, the results of the statistical test performed on the comparison between the EG and the CG in the English summarization post-tests showed that the EG outperformed the CG in the content section. The EG especially included more main ideas and fewer secondary ideas and details. The EG also included fewer reproductions and significantly more

combinations than the CG in their summaries. In relation to the Portuguese summarization post-tests, the results were non-significant both in the content and the structural sections. But, the EG also had better results than the CG by including more main ideas, fewer details and more combinations than the CG.

Third, the total results of the statistical test applied on the comparison of the Portuguese summarization pre and post-tests of the CG were non-significant (see table 12). The EG, though, included significantly more main ideas, more secondary ideas, fewer details and significantly fewer run-on-combinations in the post-test. In relation to the comparison between the English summarization pre and post-tests, results in table 11 show that both the control and the experimental groups outperformed in the content section of their post-tests by including more main ideas, more secondary ideas and less details than in their pre-tests. The EG also made fewer reproductions and more combinations in the post-test than in the pre-test. The CG had better results in the content section of the English post-test than in the English pre-test probably because they also included more reproductions in the post-test, thus copying with all types of ideas.

Fourth, the statistical test performed on the comparison between the English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests revealed that the CG and the EG had better results in the content section of the English summarization pre-tests. Both groups also included more reproductions in the English pre-test (see table 13). This outcome does not indicate that the groups made better summaries in English than in Portuguese, but that they made more copies of the English text. In relation to the results of the English and Portuguese post tests, table 14 shows that the CG copied more the English test than

the Portuguese test and that the EG performed better on the structure of the Portuguese summaries than on the English summaries.

The following explanations may account for these outcomes:

First, the results of both the CG and the EG on their English and Portuguese summarization pre-tests indicate that both groups seemed to have difficulties to distinguish the main ideas from the details, thus including all types of ideas by reproducing the original texts. These findings seem to corroborate the findings of other studies which state that one of the major deficiency in students' summaries is the inability to distinguish what is important from what is not (Winograd, 1984; Taylor, 1986; Cohen, 1980).

Second, the experimental group seems to have had better results in the content part of the summarization test due to the instruction on main idea identification they received during treatment. Some researchers claim that the summarization skill is linked to the identification of main ideas. That is, summarizing a text involves condensing the original text by selecting the important information in a text (Brown and Day, 1983; Lima, 1984; Cohen, 1988). Thus, when the subjects of the experimental group received instruction in main idea identification, apparently they were able to apply what they had been taught, that is, to distinguish main ideas from details, in other expository texts and to briefly summarize the information contained in the texts in written form in their native language.

Third, although the experimental group did not have statistically significant results in the structural part of the summarization test, this group was able to include more combinations and run-on-combinations in their summaries than the control group.

It seems that the experimental group, by having instruction in main idea identification, developed a more mature strategy while summarizing. Being able to select the important information in a text, they reduced the number of reproductions, i. e., copies or paraphrases of individual sentences of the original text, and increased the number of combinations - to condense the ideas into a few words. On the other hand, the control group used more the reproduction rule than the other rules.

It seems that the CG only reproduced in their summaries what they had read and this is probably due to the fact that they did not have the opportunity to practice and that they were not taught how to use the other rules. This finding supports the view that students need to be taught how to summarize and need the opportunity to practice this skill. Although the performance of the experimental group on the structural section of their summaries was better than that of the control group, the students of the EG cannot be considered expert summarizers yet. They still have some structural problems in their writing and probably need to learn how to use other rules such as invention in order to produce better summaries.

Finally, although the experimental group outperformed the control group in the content section of their summaries, the results suggest that the total performance of the subjects in their summaries was not totally satisfactory since a mature summary involves both content and structural features. Thus, in order to improve these students' efficiency in summarizing, they should have been given instruction both on finding main ideas in text and on summarization macro-rules.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, some comments on the results obtained in this study, teaching implications of these results, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research are presented.

5.1. Comments and Teaching Implications

Results obtained from this study indicate that the EFL Brazilian secondary students who received direct instruction on main idea identification had better understanding of expository texts and produced better, but not excellent, written summaries than those students who had instruction on vocabulary meaning and grammar.

These positive results have suggested the efficacy of teaching main idea identification in reading tasks, and we can conclude that: First, undergraduate students' comprehension problems when reading in English could be minimized if instruction on main idea identification were focused on more intensively during their secondary schooling. It seems that secondary students do not receive appropriate instruction on how to identify main ideas in a text, at least the subjects of this study have shown a low reading comprehension performance on their pre-tests. In spite of this, this skill is exactly the

one that undergraduate students need in order to read the English texts that they receive in university. Second, although instruction on main idea identification contributes to students' summary writing, students should be taught both reading and writing strategies in order to have better achievement in both skills and in content area learning. The results obtained from this study indicate that although subjects under treatment developed the content of their summaries, they still lack skills on general writing abilities and in particular on summarization macro-rules.

Third, as many reading researchers have already pointed out (Pearson and Johnson, 1978; Hudson, 1982 and others), there are many factors which may influence students' reading comprehension. In this study, results have shown that linguistic knowledge may have affected EFL readers' comprehension of English texts. Thus, teachers should consider all the factors that influence students' reading comprehension during instruction: the affective components, linguistic knowledge, schemata, and the text itself. Being aware of these important factors which influence reading comprehension, Portuguese and English reading teachers should not teach exclusively one type of reading strategy. They should include in their classroom combined reading strategies which will enable students to choose appropriate strategies and techniques according to their individual necessities and to the type of text they have to read. Thus, main idea identification is an effective skill to be taught, but students should also receive

instruction on strategies such as: prereading, identifying text structure, and activation of background knowledge.

5.2. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

With respect to this study, some limitations must be noted: First, research on main idea identification instruction has been carried out in English as L1 but, apparently so far, there is no other research in English as a foreign language in which these two skills - main idea identification and summary writing - were investigated together. Consequently, more research is needed before generalizations can be made. Second, the sample used in this study may not be representative of all Brazilian high school students of EFL; third, in the present study only one type of text - well-structured expository text - was used during treatment; and fourth, the results of this study should be interpreted with caution, having in mind the low reliability of most of the tests used in the study.

Based on the difficulties and limitations encountered throughout this study, the following recommendations can be made for further research:

1) SCORING - There is still a lack of systematization concerning measuring methods for scoring summaries. In this study, the researcher developed her own measurement criteria. However, further research in this area is needed.

2) LONG-TERM INSTRUCTION - This experimental study had a short duration, lasting only a few weeks. The work of teachers, however, is usually planned over an entire school year. It would be interesting to analyse the effectiveness of instruction on main ideas on a long-term instruction basis.

3) TEXT DIFFERENCES - This study made use of well-structured expository texts, another study could investigate the effects of main idea identification instruction using other types of texts, especially less-structured texts which are commonly found in some content area books.

4) READING AND WRITING COMBINATION - More studies should be done to examine the effects of combining main idea identification and summary writing instruction on reading comprehension and summary writing of Brazilian secondary school as well as college students of EFL.

5) THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOLS - This study has examined only the 'product' of instruction. Another study could supplement the findings by using think-aloud protocols of students during their process of reading.

In conclusion, this study seems to have provided some relevant information concerning the teaching of main idea identification. In spite of the limitations of this study, one might say that the instruction of main idea identification to EFL secondary students seems to improve their reading comprehension. The results of this study also suggested that

the instruction on main idea identification helped students to improve their summary writing. Yet, in order to obtain an excellent summarization performance of the students, it seems that the combination of reading and writing instruction in classroom is needed.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

LESSON 1

INTRODUCTION

The instructor gives an explanation of the course to the students. She emphasizes the importance of identifying the main idea of a paragraph and that, although the main idea of a paragraph can be located anywhere, there are certain places in which they are commonly found.

She also explains that in this first lesson students will learn how to recognize deductive main idea paragraphs, that is, paragraphs in which the author states the main idea first and then supports it through the rest of the paragraph.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

1. Insect anatomy

The body of an insect consists of three main parts: the head, the thorax and the abdomen. The head contains the insect's brain, eyes and mouth. It also carries the antennae. The thorax is the central part of the body. It bears the legs and wings. There are three pairs of legs and two pairs of wings. The insect's abdomen contains its digestive and reproductive organs.

(From: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.7)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------|
| - body: corpo | - wings: asas |
| - brain: cérebro | - pair: par |
| - to bear: sustentar, carregar | |

TEACHER-DIRECTED APPLICATION

2. Scientists have discovered in the past few years that a great number of diseases could be cured by music therapy. They base their argument on Darwin who suggested that music was originally used instead of word to express emotion, because language is not enough to describe feelings. Another theory is that music releases our unconscious fantasies and repressed memories because it absorbs the conscious mind. Some of the diseases that could be cured by music therapy are: tension, high blood pressure, drug addiction and even cancer.

(Adapted from: Our Turn. Yázigi, book 2, 2^a grau, São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, 1983, p. 24)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| - in the past few years: nos últimos anos | - diseases: doenças |
| - instead of: em vez de, ao invés de | - enough: suficiente |
| - feelings: sentimentos | - to release: libertar |
| - conscious mind: pensamento consciente | - even: até, mesmo |
| - high blood pressure: pressão alta | |
| - drug addiction: dependência de droga | |

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. Deserts are very dry regions. They have very little rainfall. Few plants live there. Some specialized animals do. Some deserts have a surface of sand. The sand often forms dunes. These are created by the wind. Others have stones or rocks.

(From: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 14)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| - dry: secas | - often: frequentemente |
| - little rainfall: pouca chuva | - wind: vento |
| - surface of sand: superfície de areia | - stones: pedras |

2. There are only two ways to gather information from people about what they are currently doing, thinking or feeling. One way is to watch what they do, the technique of observation; the other is to ask them, the technique of surveys. Each technique has several advantages and disadvantages.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 129)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| - way: maneira, modo | - thinking: pensando |
| - to gather: juntar, coletar | - to watch: observar, |
| - currently: atualmente | - surveys: pesquisas |
| - each: cada | |

3. Speak Up is a magazine in English for Brazilians: you can read it and listen to it at the same time. It is comparable to the best English-language magazines published around the world, with the additional advantage that the main articles are also recorded on the cassette which accompanies each issue. An original feature of Speak Up is that all the difficult words,

idiomatic expressions and complex grammatical constructions are introduced gradually and are translated in the glossaries.

(From: Speak Up. Nº 1, São Paulo, Editora Globo, 1987, p.3)

GLOSSARY

- at the same time: ao mesmo tempo
- recorded: gravados
- issue: exemplar
- feature: característica

4. Force is the push or pull on an object and it is something that you use all the time. When you walk, run, ride a bicycle, hammer nails, turn the page of a book, you are using force. Even if you push against a wall and it does not move, you are still using force. You just are not using enough force to move the wall. It takes more force to move something heavy than something light.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 296)

GLOSSARY

- push: empurrar
- pull: puxar
- to hammer: martelar
- to turn: virar
- heavy: pesada
- wall: parede
- just: apenas
- light: leve
- against: contra

HOMEWORK

Sublinhe a idéia principal dos parágrafos abaixo:

1. Cultures have definite patterns which are modified as they are transmitted from one generation to the next in a slow or rapid way. The medieval era was for the Western civilization a period of slow change in culture patterns, while the modern period has been characterized by rapid and dramatic changes.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1981. 3 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Discovering Discourse, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 22)

GLOSSARY

- patterns: padrões
- to the next: para o próximo
- slow: devagar
- change: mudança

2. Plants with shades of white, yellow or pink in their leaves need more light than plants with completely green foliage. For example, daisies need more light than any other plant which is

completely green. As we can see, some plants need more light than others because of the coloration of their foliage.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 95)

GLOSSARY

- shades: sombras
- to need more light: precisar de mais luz, claridade
- daisies: margaridas

LESSON 2

INTRODUCTION

The instructor corrects the first paragraph given as homework in the last class. She explains that today students will learn how to recognize inductive main idea paragraphs, that is, the type of paragraphs in which the author builds up to the main idea and then states it in a sentence at the very end.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

1. The inductive main idea paragraph given as homework in lesson 1 is used in these steps.

TEACHER-DIRECTED APPLICATION

2. Man's skull consists of eight cranial bones and fourteen facial bones which are all fused together. It is connected to the lower jaw by a movable joint. The skull turns freely on top of the vertebral column which consists of separate bones called vertebrae. Each vertebra is separated from the others by a disc of cartilage. In the skeleton of man there are also the limbs which are the arms and legs. In sum, the internal skeleton of man is divided into three main parts: the skull, the vertebral column and the limbs.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 39-40)

GLOSSARY

skull: crânio	joint: junta, articulação
bones: ossos	jaw: mandíbula
fuse: ligar, fundir	limbs: membros
to turn freely on top of: girar livremente no topo de	

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. The solar system

The sun is the centre of the solar system. The planets revolve around it. There are nine planets in all. They are: Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune and Pluto. Some planets have satellites. The Earth has one satellite which is called the Moon. There are also asteroids, celestial bodies looking like a star, most of which have orbits between Mars and Jupiter. In sum, the solar system consists of a star (the sun), the planets and a number of other bodies, such as satellites and asteroids.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1980. Reading and Thinking in English: Concepts in Use. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 5)

GLOSSARY

- to revolve around: girar em torno	- in all: ao todo
- to look like: parecer, ter semelhança com	- between: entre
- most of which: a maioria dos quais	- such as: tais como

2. A textbook is divided into parts: chapters, sections, subsections and paragraphs. Although each part is successively smaller in size and more limited in scope, each follows a similar organization and has a single idea. Textbooks are organized sources of information.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p.142)

GLOSSARY

- chapters: capítulos	- size: tamanho
- although: embora	- scope: extensão
- each: cada	- source: fonte

3. In space we lose the adjusting influence of the cycling between day and night. In space there is no oxygen, no barometric pressure, no home temperature, and no atmospheric filter protecting us from cosmic and solar radiations. There is no support from the substance of air and no stabilization influence of gravity. Thus, a space cabin must have provisions for appropriate and continuous pressurization, for temperature control, humidity control, and control of atmospheric gas concentrations.

(Adapted from: Samara, Samira & Biojone, Lúcia. 1988. 9 ed. Start Reading 2, 2º grau, São Paulo, Editora Saraiva, p.96)

GLOSSARY

- to lose: perder
- adjusting: ajustada
- pressure: pressão

4. In the past, the population worked more on agriculture. But as technology has developed, the population tends to work more on constructions and manufacturing. As we see, the types of work tend to change as societies become industrialized.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p.96)

GLOSSARY

- become: tornar-se
- develop: desenvolver
- as: à medida que

HOMEWORK

Sublinhe a idéia principal dos parágrafos abaixo:

1. The vapours from an active volcano may contain so much sulphur that plants cannot grow nearby. Rivers flowing through forests may become deoxygenated because so much natural organic material is deposited in them. Mercury, occurring naturally in the ocean, may reach such high levels that large numbers of fish are killed. Thus, the world is full of poisonous substances which occur naturally, independently of any action of man.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1981. 3 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Discovering Discourse. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 21)

GLOSSARY

- sulphur: enxofre
- to grow nearby: crescer nas proximidades
- to occur: ocorrer
- flow through: correr, fluir através

- to reach: alcançar - killed: mortos
- poisonous: venenosas - full of: cheio de, repleto de

4. Whenever possible, the good listener prepares in advance for the speech he or she plans to attend. He or she studies the topic to be discussed and finds out about the speaker and his or her beliefs. An effective listener, as you are beginning to see, takes specific steps to achieve accurate understanding of the lecture. Furthermore, on arriving at the place where the speech is to be given, he or she chooses a seat where it is easy to see and hear. Finally, when the speech is over, the effective listener reviews what was said and reacts to and evaluates the ideas expressed.

(From: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 104)

GLOSSARY

- whenever: sempre que
- speech/ lecture: discurso, conferência
- beliefs: crenças, convicções
- furthermore: além disso
- to achieve accurate understanding: obter compreensão exata
- to be over: ter acabado, concluído
- in advance: antecipadamente
- to attend: assistir
- effective: eficaz

LESSON 3

INTRODUCTION

Instructor corrects homework from lesson 2. She explains that today students will learn the type of paragraphs in which the main idea is in the middle of it. In this type of paragraph, the author first develops the subject, states the main idea in the middle of the paragraph and then continues the paragraph supporting the main idea with details.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

1. The paragraph given as homework in lesson 2 is used in these steps.

TEACHER-DIRECTED INSTRUCTION

2. Every morning, people in big cities need change for the bus. They need nickels, dimes, and quarters. The driver of a bus doesn't want dollar bills. He wants exact change. People also need change for buying food and drinks from machines. They put a dime in a machine and get a sandwich. People in big cities always

need change for many things in their everyday lives. They put quarters in cigarette machines. They put dimes in the phone. They put coins in machines and get stamps.

(Adapted from: Allen, H. et al. 1973. 2 ed.
English for Today, 2-A, New York, National
 Council of Teachers of English, p.11)

GLOSSARY

- change: dinheiro trocado
- nickel: níquel, moeda de 5 centavos de dólar
- dime: moeda de 10 centavos de dólar
- quarter: um quarto de dólar, moeda de 25 centavos
- bills: notas
- coins: moedas

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. Computers in space navigation

A rocket has to follow a precise path. In other words, it has to leave the Earth's orbit at a precise moment. In addition, it has to enter the Moon's orbit at a precise moment. A computer can perform the complex calculations which are necessary to work out the rocket's path precisely. Any errors in the rocket's path must be corrected immediately.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1980. Reading and Thinking in English: Concepts in Use, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 49)

GLOSSARY

- rocket: foguete
- to follow: seguir
- path: trilha, curso
- in other words: em outras palavras
- in addition: além disso
- to work out: dar certo, resolver algo de acordo com os planos

2. Many college students read too slowly. They continue to read just as they did when in the sixth grade. They move their lips as if pronouncing every word and carry their fingers along the line of the print to lead their eyes. It is as if they were reading aloud and had to pronounce each word with care. They have not yet moved to a more skillful level of reading: reading for comprehension rather than for pronunciation. In reading for comprehension tracing each word with lips and fingers is undesirable as well as unnecessary. Reading seeks the author's thought rather than his words. The phrase rather than the word is the thought unit, and the eyes can learn to take in whole phrases at a glance.

(From: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little , Brown and Company, p.101)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| - slowly: lentamente | - to lead: guiar |
| - as if: como se | - care: cuidado |
| - to carry along: conduzir | - yet: ainda |
| - print: impressão | - skillful: competente |
| - to seek: procurar | - thought: pensamento |
| - rather than: ao invés de | - to take in: entender |
| - at a glance: numa só olhada | |

3. Many of us, when we are in a boutique or a department store, buying new clothes, or just admiring new fashions, rarely associate these clothes with any form of industry or any form of economic manipulation. Unfortunately, like any other product, fashion is also industrialized, and economic manipulation does exist. This manipulation is realized in the form of publicity campaigns which try to convince the potential consumer of the "necessity" to buy and wear the latest products. Of course this "necessity" which is originally non-existent, suddenly becomes real if the publicity campaign is efficient enough. The potential consumer soon believes that he really needs to buy the new product.

(From: Our Turn, Yázigi, Book 3, 2º grau, São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, 1984, p. 28-29)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| - new clothes: roupas novas | - to wear: vestir, trajar |
| - just: apenas | - the latest: os últimos |
| - fashion: moda | - suddenly: subitamente |
| - unfortunately: infelizmente | - soon: logo |
| - like: como | - to believe: acreditar |
| - consumer: consumidor | |

HOMEWORK

Sublinhe a idéia principal dos parágrafos abaixo:

1. Dreams

Each dream you have may vary from a few minutes to an hour, and about 20 per cent of the sleeping time is taken by dreams. You should try to remember and write down your dreams. Generally, you can discover a solution to your problems through dreams because they give you elements that are blocked by consciousness when you are awake. Then, carefully study the implicit and explicit relationships among the symbols and your life. There are many guide books which help to interpret your dreams.

(Adapted from: Our Turn, Yázigi, book 2, 2ª
 grau, São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, 1983,
 p. 63)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| - dream: sonho | - consciousness: consciência |
| - to remember: recordar | - awake: acordado |
| - through: através | - among: entre |

2. It may be said that human beings are divided into classes: first, those whose work is work and whose pleasure is pleasure; and secondly, those whose work and pleasure are one. Of these the former are the majority. They have their compensations. The long hours in the office or the factory bring with them as their reward, not only the means of sustenance, but an appetite for pleasure. But the favoured persons belong to the second class. Their life is a natural harmony. For them the working hours are never long enough. Each day is a natural holiday, and ordinary holidays are interruptions of a favorite diversion. Yet to both classes the cultivation of a hobby, the change of atmosphere is essential.

(Adapted from: Churchill, Winston. Painting as a
 pastime. In: Fluency in English: An
 Integrated Course for Advanced Students.
 London, Longman, 1980)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------|
| - human beings: seres humanos | - reward: recompensa |
| - whose: cujo | - favoured: favorecidas |
| - pleasure: prazer, diversão | - to belong to: pertencer a |
| - former: o primeiro | - yet: no entanto |
| - office: escritório | - to bring: trazer |
| - the means of sustenance: o meio de sustento | |
| - ordinary holiday: feriados normais, convencionais | |

LESSON 4

INTRODUCTION

Instructor corrects homework. Students are told that they will learn how to identify the main idea in the first and last sentences of a paragraph. The instructor explains that in this type of paragraph the author states the main idea at the beginning of the paragraph, then he supports the idea and restates the main idea at the end.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

1. The first example is the paragraph given as homework in lesson 3.

2. Plants and animals interact with each other. Animals depend on plants for their food. In the same way, plants depend on animals. All plants and animals must have four elements: carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen and oxygen. These elements are combined to form proteins, fats and carbohydrates in the animal or plant. They are then used for building cells or as a source of energy. Oxygen is obtained from air and water. Water is also a source of hydrogen for living things. Carbon and nitrogen come from the air, sea or soil. The use of these four elements (carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen and oxygen) by plants and animals involves complex cycles which demonstrate the dependence of animals and plants on each other.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1980. Reading and Thinking in English: Concepts in Use. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.71)

GLOSSARY

- in the same way: da mesma maneira - as: como
- fats: gorduras - living things: seres vivos
- to build: construir - soil: solo

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. Life on other planets

For a long time scientists have suspected that life exists on other planets besides the Earth. Not long ago, some pieces of rock from space (meteorites) were discovered in Australia. This discovery has stirred up a lot of excitement among experts throughout the world because these rocks contain chemicals similar to those found on Earth and in our bodies. This indicates to some specialists that life, in some form, is not only possible but probable on other planets.

(Adapted from: Hirasawa, L. and Makstein, L. 1974. Developing Reading Strategies. Massachusetts, Newbury House Publishers, p.98)

GLOSSARY

- life: vida - throughout: através de
- besides: além de - found: achados
- to stir up: provocar - in some form: de alguma forma
- some pieces of rocks: alguns pedaços de rochas

2. People usually play to win, and the game has little meaning unless you do everything to win. Anyone who has played even in a school football match knows this. At the international level sport is really a warfare. Nowadays, nearly all the sports practised are competitive.

(Adapted from: Orwell, George. The sporting spirit.
In: L. G. Alexander. Fluency in English: An
Integrated Course for Advanced Students.
London, Longman, 1980, p.23)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| - usually: normalmente | - nearly: quase |
| - to win: ganhar | - unless: a não ser que |
| - game: jogo | - match: partida |
| - little meaning: pouco significado | - warfare: batalha |

3. According to a study done by the United Nations Organizations, most of the poor in the world live in rural areas and in these areas, the majority of the land is possessed by a minority of the population. In Latin America, in 1975, 93% of the agricultural land was possessed by only 7% of the population. In Africa, the problem is identical. In Kenya, for example, more than half of the population possesses only 15% of the total agricultural land. In recent times, most of the people who possess the land do not participate in its cultivation. This means that most of the people who cultivate the land do not possess it, they work for the people who possess it.

(Adapted from: Our Turn. Yázigi, book 3, 2^o volume.
São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, 1984, p.9)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| - the poor: as pessoas pobres | - according to: de acordo com |
| - more than half: mais da metade | - this means: isto significa |
| - land: terra | |

4. Color blindness

Color blindness is a genetically-caused condition in which a person cannot detect all colors. Most color-blind people can see only two basic colors and they tend to confuse other colors, especially reds with greens. This impairment can bring about problems because many color-blind people do not realize that their eyesight is defective. They have learned to use the color names that everyone else uses, and they are not aware that they do not see the colors that others see. There is a risk that their condition may place them in danger. If they confuse red and green, for example, they may be able to distinguish traffic signals only by their brightness. Scientists believe that color blindness is an inherited genetic defect and there is no cure for it.

(Adapted from: Hirasawa, L. & Makstein, L. 1974.
Developing Reading Strategies. Massachusetts,
Newbury House Publishers, p.85)

GLOSSARY

- color blindness: daltonismo
- impairment: deficiência
- to realize: perceber
- defective: defeituosa
- to place in danger: por em perigo
- inherited: hereditário
- in which: no qual
- to bring about: causar
- eyesight: visão
- else: outro
- brightness: claridade

HOMEWORK

1. Congestion occurs by the multiplication of vehicles on the roads. It is also caused by the fact that access to the majority of buildings is gained direct from the street, with the result that the traffic flow is obstructed every time a vehicle pulls up. Another difficulty is the shortage of places for parking.

(Adapted from: Allen, J. P. B. & Widdowson, H. G.
1978. English in Focus: English in Social Studies.
Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.94)

Unstated main idea: A causa do congestionamento de veículos dá-se pelo grande número de carros, pelo acesso às estradas e por existirem poucos estacionamento.

GLOSSARY

- flow: fluxo
- buildings: edifícios
- to pull up: diminuir o ritmo para parar
- shortage: falta, carência

2. Culture is the product of humans interacting in groups. From their parents and from others around them, humans learn how to act and how to think in ways that are shared by people in their group. From birth to death, humans are biologically conditioned to live not as separate individuals, but as members of groups. Even hermits do not escape the rest of humanity, for everything they think, know, or believe has been conditioned by others. Culture is a group effort and is socially shared.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, k. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p.141)

GLOSSARY

- parents: pais
- shared: dividido, compartilhado
- from birth to death: do nascimento a morte

LESSON 5

INTRODUCTION

The instructor corrects the homework and introduces the unstated main idea paragraphs. In this type of paragraph, the author does not state the main idea in a topic sentence, but he leaves it up to the reader to infer it. The unstated main idea paragraph contains details of specific ideas about a topic.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

1. The paragraph given as homework in lesson 4 is used in these steps.

2. The X-rays

One day in 1895 a german scientist named Wilhelm Roentgen was making experiences with the electron rays, shooting them at a coated glass screen. Roentgen happened to pass his hands between the rays and the screen. To his amazement, the shadow of the bones inside his hand appeared. Most of the rays were passing through the flesh of his hand lighting the screen, but some of them were stopped by the bones and produced a shadow of his hand's skeleton. Roentgen had discovered the X-rays.

(Adapted from: Samara, S. and Biojone, L. Start Reading 1. 2^o, São Paulo, Editora Saraiva, 1988, 9 ed., p. 96)

Unstated main idea: Roentgen descobriu o raio-X por acaso.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| - rays: raios | - german: alemão |
| - to shoot at: projetar na | - between: entre |
| - amazement: surpresa | - shadow: sombra |
| - inside: dentro de | - flesh: carne |
| - lighting: iluminando | |
| - coated glass screen: tela de vidro revestido | |
| - happened to pass: passou ao acaso | |

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. Bridges

Until recent times the commonest form of bridge was the arch, usually made of stone, brick or wood. The introduction of iron and steel during the Industrial Revolution changed bridge design completely. There is now a variety of forms for different purposes. The suspension bridge has often been chosen for long spans. Examples of these are the Sydney Harbour Bridge (1932, 650m), the Forth Road bridge (1961, 1100m), and the Golden Gate (1400m). Reinforced concrete is now in common use for bridges carrying roads.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1981. 3 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Discovering Discourse. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.10)

Unstated main idea: Depois da Revolução Industrial, os tipos de ponte tornaram-se variados de acordo com os seus propósitos.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| - bridge: ponte | - made of: feito de |
| - stone: pedra | - brick: tijolo |
| - wood: madeira | - to change: mudar |
| - purposes: objetivos | - until: até |
| - spans: vãos | |

2. China is estimated to have one billion people, that is, 20% of the world's population. The United Nations requested all countries to conduct a new census before 1985. China had to prepare for this for three years. It was expensive. It cost more than 200 million dollars. Census workers were trained and mobilized by the Peking government, under United Nations supervision. These workers had to distribute questionnaires involving 19 questions about age, sex, ethnic origin, occupation, number of children and other details.

(Adapted from: Yázigi, manual do professor, Our Turn, book 1, 2º grau, São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, Editora e Importadora Ltda, 1984, p. 49)

Unstated main idea: Devido a grande população da China, o Census pedido pelas Nações Unidas foi demorado, caro e pessoas tiveram que ser treinadas para a realização de tal tarefa.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| - that is: isto é | - to request: requerer, pedir |
| - under: sob | |

3. The story of caviar goes back to the Dark Ages when fishermen in the Astrakhan region (on the Caspian Sea) discovered an interesting fact. They realized that sturgeon returning upstream to their spawning grounds in the Volga in spring and autumn were very vulnerable. They noticed that this docile fish could be picked out of the water like a log. Later on they learned one of the important secrets of caviar: the fish must die peacefully. If this isn't the case, then the body secretes a defensive substance that makes the eggs both acidic and smelly. A later generation of fishermen found that the fish could be anaesthetised with a blow of hammer to a particular point on the head. The technique hasn't changed in twelve hundred years: the sturgeon's belly is then cut open and the ovarian membrane is removed.

(From: Speak Up, Nº 6, São Paulo, Editora Globo, 1987, p.16)

Unstated main idea: A técnica de se obter caviar data desde muito tempo e consiste em: apanhar o esturjão que volta a corrente para o local de cria e matá-lo pacificamente com uma martelada na cabeça.

GLOSSARY

- Dark Ages: era primitiva
- sturgeon: esturjão (tipo de peixe)
- returning upstream: voltando contra corrente
- spawning grounds: local de cria
- to be picked out of: retirado
- log: tora
- peacefully: pacificamente
- blow of a hammer: martelada
- fishermen: pescadores
- later on: mais tarde
- belly: barriga

4. Traffic noise is now the predominant nuisance in towns. Other unpleasant by-products of vehicles are fumes. In California, engine fumes are the major cause of atmospheric pollution. We must also consider the visual consequences of the transport revolution. These include the destruction of many areas valued for their architectural beauty and/or historical associations to construct roads.

(Adapted from: Allen, J.P.B. and Widdowson, H.G. 1978. English in Focus: English in Social Studies. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 95)

Unstated main idea: A revolução do transporte causa vários problemas às cidades: barulho, fumaça e destruição de construções bonitas e históricas.

GLOSSARY

- towns: cidades
- by-product: subproduto
- beauty: beleza
- unpleasant: desagradável
- valued for: valorizadas pela

HOMEWORK

Escreva a idéia principal do parágrafo abaixo.

The teacher brings into the school all his own habits of mind, attitudes, beliefs, values, ways of doing things and seeing the world which he has inherited from the society in which he was brought up. These factors will influence the children, the school and the community outside. The child brings into school everything which he has learned in his family - habits, attitudes, beliefs, etc. - and the teacher and the school will responde to these. The school itself is a social organization

with special requirements of behaviour, influenced by the generally accepted values and traditions of education, built up over the years. Both the child and the teacher must adapt themselves to these. The school influences the community around it, both by producing the manpower with the skills needed by society, and by shaping the beliefs and attitudes of the young entering society. As for the community, it influences the actual organization of the school through such groups as governors, parent-teacher associations, administrators, etc, and in a less formal way, it is represented by those working in the school, the children, the teachers and the servicing staff.

(Adapted from: Laird, E. English in Focus: English in Education, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1979, p.11)

Unstated main idea: Ocorre constante interação entre sociedade, escola, professor e aluno que é caracterizada pela influência que um exerce no(s) outro(s) através das diferentes formas de atuação de cada um desses elementos.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| - to bring into: trazer para | - mind: mente |
| - inherited: herdado | - in which: na qual |
| - brought up: educado | - outside: de fora |
| - requirements: requisitos | - behaviour: comportamento |
| - skill: habilidade | - needed by: necessárias pela |
| - shaping: moldando | - young: jovens |
| - less: menos | - staff: quadro de pessoal |

LESSON 6

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Sublinhe a idéia principal de cada parágrafo abaixo, e se for "unstated main idea paragraph" escreva a idéia principal.

1. People read in different ways and for different reasons. Sometimes they want to find specific information. Sometimes they want to have a general idea of what they are reading.

(From: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.7)

2. Machines

What does a bicycle have in common with a calculator, a movie camera with a car? They are all machines. Machines are any object capable of performing a specified task and consisting of

a combination of parts, some fixed some moving. These parts, when separated, resemble a lifeless organism.

(Adapted from: Samara, S. and Biojone, L. 1988. 9ed. Start Reading 1, 2^o grau, São Paulo, Editora Saraiva, p.37)

GLOSSARY

- to perform: executar, realizar - task: tarefa
- to take a look at: dar uma olhada

3. Systems

We are surrounded by ecosystems, we create and live in political and social systems, we use transport systems and indeed, the most important part of us is a vital and mysterious system, our brain, part of the central nervous system. Not long ago the term 'system' was hardly used, but the idea of system has assumed more and more importance which is reflected in the widespread use of the term.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1981. 3 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Discovering Discourse, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 64-65)

GLOSSARY

- surrounded: cercados - indeed: de fato
- widespread: difundido, divulgado - hardly: dificilmente

4. Plants

All flowering plants are composed of four organs - roots, stem, leaves and flowers. The central part of the plant is the stem. The roots are attached to the bottom of the stem. Some plants have one root, others have many small roots. The leaves are connected to the sides of the stem. Some leaves are long and thin, others are fat and round. The flower is attached to the top of the stem. Flowers contain the plant's reproductive organs. Most plants have the male and female organs in the same flower. Some plants have separate male and female flowers.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1980. Reading and Thinking in English: Concepts in Use. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 33)

GLOSSARY

- roots: raízes
- leaves: folhas
- attached to: ligadas a
- sides: lados
- female: feminino
- stem: caule, talo
- flowers: flores
- bottom: base
- male: masculino

5. Most social anthropologists recognize the family as a basic social unit. This unit is usually established by means of a formal contract of marriage, but a contract of this kind is not a necessary condition for a nuclear family to exist. It can also be said to exist when a couple is married or not. That is to say, a family may exist even when the relationship between the man and the woman is one of concubinage rather than one of marriage.

(Adapted from: Allen, J.P.B and Widdowson, H.G.
1978. English in Focus: English in Social Studies. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.1)

GLOSSARY

- by means of: por meio de
- but: mas
- also: também
- couple: casal
- marriage: casamento
- kind: tipo
- whether: se

6. The official language of the United States is English. The official language of Mexico is Spanish. Canada has two official languages: English and French. Each country has its own official language which, sometimes, can be more than one.

(From: Allen, H. et al. 1973. 2 ed. English for Today, book 2-A, New York, National Council of Teachers of English, p. 25)

GLOSSARY

- own: própria

7. Exploring the ocean

Many countries are now studying undersea living. The Soviet Union has an undersea laboratory in the Crimean Sea. The United States has a laboratory 50 feet down on the ocean floor of the Virgin Islands. In 1978 five men lived there for two weeks. Then a team of five women scientists stayed in the laboratory. Next came other teams of men. Scientists involved in this type of research hope to find enough mineral, vegetable, and animal wealth there to provide food for the entire world.

(Adapted from: Allen, H. et al. 1973. 2 ed.
English for Today, book 2-A, New York,
 National Council of Teachers of English, p. 94)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| - undersea living: vida submarina | - team: time |
| - ocean floor: solo do oceano | - to stay: ficar |
| - next: depois | - research: pesquisa |
| - to hope: esperar, desejar | - wealth: riqueza |
| - to provide: fornecer, abastecer | |
| - 50 feet down: 15.24 metros de profundidade | |

8. Traffic is directed by color. Pilot instrument panels, road and water crossings are regulated by many colored lights and signs. Factories use colors to distinguish between throughfares and work areas. Danger zones are painted in special colors. Lubrification points and removable parts are accentuated by color. Pipes for transporting water, steam, oil, chemicals, and compressed air, are designated by different colors. Electrical wires and resistances are color coded.

(From: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed, College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 115-116)

Unstated main idea: As cores têm funções múltiplas na vida do homem.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| - crossings: travessias | - lights: luzes |
| - signs: sinais | - wires: fios |
| - factories: fábricas | - danger: perigo |
| - painted: pintado | - pipes: tubos |
| - steam: vapor | - throughfares: passarelas |
| - lubrication points: pontos para lubrificação | |
| - color coded: em código de cores | |

9. On the average, babies pronounce recognizable syllables by the third month. As a child matures, his syllables become sharper, cleaner, and more distinct. Repeating the same sound over and over again, like "da da da" and "ga ga ga", begin at about this time and continue until the end of the first year. Toward the end of the first half year, the infant is likely to "talk" to his parents and other familiar people when he is being played with or talked to. Imitation of sounds made by others generally begins after approximately nine months.

(Adapted from: McWhorter, K. 1986. 3 ed. College Reading and Study Skills. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, p. 116-117)

Unstated main idea: As crianças têm um desenvolvimento progressivo da fala.

GLOSSARY

- sharper: mais acentuada
- cleaner: mais clara
- same: mesmo
- at about: por volta de
- over and over again: repetidamente

10. Traffic

An underground line today can carry between 20.000 and 40.000 passengers an hour, - all of them who would otherwise have to use private or public means of transport on the surface, taking up a lot of room and making traffic more chaotic. The underground railway proved itself a great help in solving one of the worst problems of the big cities of the world: traffic. With its characteristic speed, regularity and frequency, the underground ensures rapid travel, and "shrinks" distances in the cities. It does not pollute the areas it operates in as it works by electricity. The amount of energy consumed is far less than if the passengers travelled in their own cars.

(Adapted from: Samara, S. and Biojone, L. 1988.
9 ed. Start Reading 2, 2º grau, São Paulo, p.85)

GLOSSARY

- underground railway: metrô
- otherwise: de outra maneira
- to take up: ocupar, tomar
- worst: pior
- speed: velocidade
- to ensure: assegurar
- shrink: reduzir, diminuir

LESSON 7

INTRODUCTION

Students are told that they will learn in this lesson to identify main ideas in longer passages and to relate these main ideas to the overall theme.

EXAMPLE AND DIRECT INSTRUCTION

Rescuing a drowning person

There are different places in which a person can drown and different methods to rescue him. The following paragraphs describe these places and how to save the person.

There are cases in which the rescuer does not need to be a swimmer or have any special training. The best method is to extend a hand or a foot to the person. A drowning person near a bank can be saved simply by giving him something to grasp. If

the person is too far away one end of a sweater or a cord may be extended.

In shallow water the rescuer can walk as far as necessary to reach the drowning person and give him the hand. He must be careful not to get into deep water. The rescuer should always grasp the victim and not allow the victim grasp him.

In the last case, the simplest method is by swimming on one's side. The rescuer pulls the victim by the hair. Thus, only a skilled swimmer can save a person in deep water because he has to grasp the victim and pull him to safety.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions. Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 31)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| - to drown: afogar | - to rescue: resgatar, salvar |
| - following: seguinte | - to be careful: ser cuidadoso |
| - swimmer: nadador | - deep water: águas profundas |
| - near: próximo | - to allow: permitir |
| - to grasp: agarrar, pegar | - to reach: alcançar |
| - too far away: muito longe | - safety: segurança |
| - shallow: rasa, pouco profunda | - as far as: tão longe quanto |
| - to swim on one's side: nadar de lado | |

TEACHER-DIRECTED APPLICATION

1. Body Language

All of us communicate with one another nonverbally, as well as with words. Most of the time we're not aware that we're doing it. We gesture with eyebrows or a hand, meet someone else's eyes and look away, shift positions in a chair. But researchers have discovered in recent years that there is a system to these nonverbal actions almost as consistent and comprehensible as language.

A Frenchman talks and moves in French. The way an Englishman crosses his legs is nothing like the way a male American does it. In talking, Americans are apt to end a statement with a droop of the head or hand. Every culture has its own body language, and children absorb its nuances along with spoken language.

The person who is truly bilingual is also bilingual in body language. New York's famous mayor, Fiorello La Guardia, politicked in English, Italian and Yiddish. When films of his speeches are run without sound, it's not too difficult to identify from his gestures the language he was speaking.

What the nonverbal elements express very often, and very efficiently, is the emotional side of the message. When a person feels liked or disliked, often it's a case of not what he said but the way he said it.

(Adapted from: Hirasawa, L. and Makstein, L. 1974.
Developing Reading Strategies,
 Massachusetts, Newbury House Publishers)

GLOSSARY

- to be aware of: estar consciente, inteirado
- droop: inclinação
- to gesture: gesticular
- along with: com
- eyebrows: sobrancelhas
- mayor: prefeito
- to look away: desviar o olhar
- to shift positions: mudar de posição
- to cross the leg: cruzar as pernas
- to end a statement: finalizar uma afirmação
- politicked: fez campanhas políticas
- to be run: ser passado, mostrado

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

2. Jeans

The most popular pants in the world - the blue jeans - were invented by Levi Strauss in 1849, when gold was discovered in California. Strauss noticed that miners needed durable clothes that could resist the hard work of scraping gold from the earth.

When Strauss arrived in California, he sold clothing, boots, nails, etc. But he had difficulty in selling canvas, the material made for using the tents in which most miners lived. Canvas was so durable that it was rarely replaced. At the same time Strauss heard many miners complain that their pants were ripped to shreds by the rocks after just a few days. With this in mind, he fashioned a pair of pants out of canvas. He sold them for 22 cents and they were an immediate success.

In 1873 Strauss encountered a man who helped him improve the original design of jeans. They also put a label on the back of each pair of pants in order to show how strong they were. The label showed a picture of two horses trying to pull apart a pair of his blue jeans.

More recently the blue jeans have become chic as all fashion designers have been producing their own brand. Everyone wears jeans which are still the most durable and comfortable pair of pants.

(Adapted from: French, P. In: Speak Up, Nº4,
 São Paulo, Editora Abril, 1987, p.22)

Unstated main idea of the second paragraph: Strauss teve a idéia de confeccionar calças de lona para aumentar a saída do material e a necessidade dos mineiros de calças resistentes para o trabalho.

Unstated main idea of the third paragraph: Juntamente com um sócio, Strauss aperfeiçoou o jeans e criou uma etiqueta.

Unstated main idea of the fourth paragraph: Atualmente o jeans é considerado chique e é utilizado por todos por ser resistente e confortável.

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| - gold: ouro | - miners: mineiros |
| - hard: difícil, duro | - strengthen: reforçar |
| - to scrap: retirar pedaços | - pockets: bolsos |
| - canvas: lona | - rivets: rebite |
| - to complain: reclamar | - label: etiqueta |
| - ripped to shreds: rasgar em frangalhos | |
| - to fashion: confeccionar | - in order to: para que |
| - to improve: melhorar | - strong: forte |
| - brand: marca, grife | |

HOMEWORK

Sublinhe ou escreva a idéia principal de cada parágrafo do texto abaixo.

Migration

Migration may be defined as a permanent change of residence by an individual or a group. This definition is not entirely satisfactory, since it leaves us with the problem of deciding what is permanent. In studies of international migration a person is usually classed as an immigrant if he has stated his intention of settling in the host country for at least a year.

One form of migration is found when workers and their families cross national boundaries in search of better jobs than are available at home. Labour migration on a large scale, often involving a permanent or semi-permanent resettlement of the worker and his family, was a major factor in the economic expansion of Western Europe after the end of the Second World War. By 1960 migrant workers from Portugal, Yugoslavia, Greece, Turkey and many other countries were building houses, mending roads everywhere in the industrial cities of the north. The flow of migrant workers fluctuates according to the state of the economy in the host countries.

Although an abundant supply of foreign labour has become essential to the West European economy, the influx of large numbers of foreigners has given rise to a variety of social problems. If large numbers of foreigners are present they tend to put pressure on jobs, housing and education. Because their standard of living is often low compared with other groups of workers, they crowd together in the slums. Above all, they give rise to fears among native population. Thus, in many countries concern has been expressed about the dangers of 'foreignization'.

(Adapted from: Allen, J.P.B. & Widdowson, H.G. 1978
English in Focus: English in Social
 Studies, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p.69)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| - stated: afirmado | - settling: fixar-se |
| - host: hospedeiro | - at least: pelo menos |
| - cross boundaries: cruzar fronteiras | |
| - in search of: em busca de | - job: emprego |
| - available: disponível | - labour: trabalho |
| - to build: construir | - to mend: consertar |
| - to give rise: dar origem a | - housing: habitação |
| - standard of living: padrão de vida | |
| - to crowd together in the slums: amontoar-se em favelas | |

LESSON 8

INTRODUCTION

Instructor corrects homework and gives texts to be analyzed.

TEACHER-DIRECTED APPLICATION

1. Man and his environment

Throughout history man has transformed woodlands into farmlands, and made lakes and reservoirs out of rivers for irrigation purposes or hydroelectric power. He has also modified the earth by draining marshes and cutting through mountains to build roads. Man, with the tools of technology has changed his physical environment in order to improve his way of life.

However, man's changes to the physical environment have not always had beneficial results: today, pollution of the air is an increasing danger to the health of the planet. Each day thousands of tons of gases come out of the exhausts of motor vehicles; the smoke from factories pollutes the air of industrialized areas and the surrounding areas of countryside. The air in the cities is becoming increasingly unhealthy.

The pollution of water is equally harmful. In the sea, pollution from oil is increasing and is killing enormous numbers of algae, fish and birds. The whole ecological balance of the sea is being changed. The same problem exists in rivers. Industrial wastes have already made many rivers lifeless.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 57-58)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| - woodlands: terras florestais | - healthy: saudável, salubre |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|

- farmlands: terras para agricultura
- purposes: finalidades
- to drain: drenar
- marshes: pântanos
- tools: instrumentos
- increasingly: cada vez mais
- equally harmful: igualmente prejudicial
- industrial wastes: lixo industrial
- tons: toneladas
- exhaust: escapamento
- smoke: fumaça
- to kill: matar
- environment: meio-ambiente
- lifeless: sem vida

2. Communication

Telephone, television, radio and the telegraph all help people communicate with each other faster now. For example, within seconds, people can know the results of an election in Japan or Argentina. An international soccer match comes into the home of everyone with a television set. News of a disaster such as an earthquake or a flood can bring help from distant countries.

In the past, communication took much more time than it does now and this time distance influenced people's actions. For example, one battle in the War of 1812 between England and The United States could have been avoided. A peace agreement had already been signed. Peace was made in England, but the news of peace took six weeks to reach America. During this six weeks, the large and serious Battle of New Orleans occurred. Many people died after the peace agreement had been signed. They would not have died if news had come in time.

But, the speed of communication that exists nowadays means that all people in different countries must try harder to understand each other. An example is that people with different religions must try to understand each other's beliefs and values even if they do not accept them.

(Adapted from: Zukowski, Faust et al. 1982. In Context: Reading Skills for Intermediate Students of English as a Second Language. New York, CBS College Publishing, p. 31-32)

GLOSSARY

- faster: mais rápido
- earthquake: terremoto
- peace agreement: acordo de paz
- avoided: evitado
- died: morreram
- battle: batalha

HOMEWORK

Sublinhe ou escreva a idéia principal de cada parágrafo do texto abaixo.

Women in journalism

Until recently, women reporters wrote the women's section of the newspaper; men wrote the rest of it. Important assignments -

politics, crime, foreign news - are the key to money and prestige in journalism. For this reason, when women reporters are limited to "women's topics" like fashion and social events, they have no chance to advance in their profession.

But, nowadays, more and more women are reporting on wars, bombings and politics, and doing it as well as men. Norman Fine, the news director at WNBC-TV in New York, says "different people have different abilities, but that has nothing to do with their sex".

Sportswriting especially is opening up to women reporters. One of them is Lawrie Mifflin. In 1974, when she started to work for the New York Daily News, she wanted to cover sports. At that time she was told that the sports department wasn't ready for a woman reporter, but two years later Mifflin got her wish. Her editor told her "I'm not going to have you cover just women's sports. If you are going to work in the sports department, you're going to do the same work as everybody else". On her third day in the department she covered a professional basketball game.

However, outside of sports reporting women are regularly refused assignments they are qualified to cover. Reporters who want to report crime or war stories are often told the assignments are too dangerous for a woman. This sounds as though their editors are worried about them, but the women believe it is often just an excuse. In their fight for equal work opportunities, some women have changed jobs to get better assignments; others have hired lawyers and taken legal action to get the assignments they want.

(Adapted from: Life Styles, p.42)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| - Until recently: até recentemente | - assignments: tarefas |
| - foreign news: matérias internacionais | - advance: crescer |
| - key: chave | |
| - has nothing to do with: não tem nada a ver com | |
| - to cover: cobrir (uma matéria) | - ready: pronto |
| - later: mais tarde | - wish: desejo |
| - refused: negadas | - war: guerra |
| - too dangerous: muito perigoso | - excuse: desculpa |
| - hired lawyers: contratado advogados | - fight: luta |
| - this sounds as though: isto soa como | |
| - to be worried about: preocupar-se | |

LESSON 9

INTRODUCTION

The instructor corrects homework. Next, students work in pairs with two texts which, at the end of the activity, are corrected by the instructor together with the class.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Sublinhe ou escreva a idéia principal de cada parágrafo dos textos abaixo.

1. Social insects

People who study the insect society found an interesting thing: social insects live in integrated communities which in some ways are similar to human communities. In insect societies certain insects are responsible for reproduction; the workers collect food while the soldiers defend the colony. In the same way human groups such as farmers and shopkeepers have specialized functions in producing goods and providing services to the community. Thus, in both types of community there is division of labour.

Insect and human societies are also alike in that individual members of the community work together. Termite workers co-ordinate their efforts to build nests. Similarly, in human societies engineers, architects, town planners and construction workers unite to build cities.

The nests of social insects are as complex as a man-made city. In some insect nests special accommodation is provided for the young and for food storage. Many nests are as functional as human houses.

It is not surprising, therefore, that many analogies have been made between social insects and human societies. It must not be forgotten, however, that insect social behaviour is determined by innate instinctive mechanisms. Insects show no capacity for learning or for developing a social tradition based on learning.

(Adapted from: Moore, J. 1982. 5 ed. Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions, Oxford, Oxford University Press, p. 31)

Unstated main idea of the fourth paragraph: Os insetos, ao contrário dos homens, têm um comportamento social determinado por mecanismos instintivos inatos e não têm capacidade para aprenderem ou desenvolverem uma tradição social baseada na aprendizagem

GLOSSARY:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| - farmers: fazendeiros | - shopkeepers: lojistas |
| - alike: parecidas | - efforts: esforços |
| - to build nests: construir ninhos | - engineers: engenheiros |
| - devices: dispositivos | |
| - town planners: planejadores de cidade | |
| - man-made city: cidade feita pelo homem | |
| - food storage: armazenagem de comida | |
| - therefore: portanto | |

- it must not be forgotten: não deve ser esquecido
- behaviour: comportamento
- to learn: aprender

2. Training elephants

Two main techniques have been used for training elephants, which we may call respectively the tough and the gentle. The former method simply consists of setting an elephant to work and beating him until he does what is expected of him. Apart from any moral considerations this is a stupid method of training, for it produces a resentful animal who at a later stage may well turn man-killer. The gentle method requires more patience in the early stages, but produces a cheerful, good-tempered elephant who will give many years of loyal service.

The first essential in elephant training is to assign to the animal a single man/hout who will be entirely responsible for the job. Elephants like to have one master just as dogs do, and are capable of a considerable degree of personal affection. There are even stories of half-trained elephant calves who have refused to feed and pined to death when by some unavoidable circumstance they have been deprived of their own trainer.

The most economical age to capture an elephant for training is between fifteen and twenty years, for it is then almost ready to undertake heavy work and can begin to earn its keep straight away. But animals of this age do not easily become subservient to man, and a very firm hand must be employed in the early stages.

(Adapted from: L.G. Alexander. Fluency in English: An Integrated Course for Advanced Students. London, Longman, 1980)

Unstated main idea of the fourth paragraph: A idade ideal para se treinar um elefante é entre 15 e 20 anos quando o treino tem que ser bem feito.

GLOSSARY

- tough: dura, rigorosa
- to beat: bater
- early stages: estágios iniciais
- to assign: designar
- single man/hout: único treinador
- half-trained elephants calves: filhotes de elefantes parcialmente treinados
- to pine to death: consumir-se até a morte
- unavoidable: inevitável
- deprived: desprovido
- to undertake: empreender, engarregar-se
- to earn its keep straight away: ganhar seu sustento imediatamente
- to be employed: ser empregado
- to set: obrigar, colocar
- cheerful: alegre, animado
- to feed: alimentar

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE LESSON EMPLOYING THE DIRECT INSTRUCTION MODEL

Introduction: "Na aula passada nós vimos três definições importantes que foram a de tópico, idéia principal e detalhes, vocês lembram?" (alunos respondem). "Muito bem. Nós vimos também que existem parágrafos onde a idéia principal localiza-se logo no início do parágrafo e esta idéia principal é sustentada pelo restante das sentenças do parágrafo. Hoje vocês aprenderão a identificar a idéia principal no final dos parágrafos. Essa habilidade é importante porque muitos parágrafos são estruturados dessa maneira. Ao identificar este tipo de idéia principal, vocês compreenderão a informação mais importante do texto".

Example and Direct instruction: "Agora vamos dar uma olhada no parágrafo 2 da seção homework na lesson 1. Eu lerei em voz alta e vocês acompanharão a leitura silenciosamente. (Instrutora lê o parágrafo). Notem que o parágrafo fala sobre plantas e suas colorações. Este é o tópico do parágrafo. Como vimos na aula passada, a idéia principal de um parágrafo é aquela sentença que o autor apresenta para explicar o tópico. Ela caracteriza a idéia central a qual as outras sentenças fazem referência. Observem agora cada sentença do parágrafo. A primeira sentença faz uma comparação entre plantas de diversas cores e plantas com a coloração verde. As mais coloridas necessitam de mais luz. A segunda sentença é um exemplo dessa explicação. Já a terceira sentença é uma afirmação feita pelo autor sustentada pelas sentenças anteriores. Notem que o autor faz uso de um método indutivo para chegar a uma afirmação. Isto é, ele primeiro explicou, exemplificou, para depois chegar a uma afirmação, à idéia principal do parágrafo. Muitos autores escrevem parágrafos similares a este onde a idéia principal só aparece no final da passagem".

Teacher-directed application: "Vamos agora trabalhar com outro parágrafo". (Instrutora distribui o material da lição 2). "Vejam esse primeiro parágrafo. Leiam silenciosamente e tentem achar o tópico do parágrafo. (Alunos lêem o parágrafo). "Muito bem, qual é o tópico?" (Alunos respondem). "Certo. Agora analisem as sentenças, vejam as relações entre elas e finalmente, sublinhem a idéia principal". (Alunos completam a tarefa). "Qual é a idéia principal? (Alunos respondem e, caso não acertem, a instrutora dá mais instruções adicionais).

Independent practice: Agora vocês irão trabalhar sozinhos. Nos próximos parágrafos, tentem achar a idéia principal de cada um e as sublinhe. Leiam cuidadosamente cada parágrafo. Ao terminarem iremos corrigi-los em grupo". (Ao término da atividade a instrutora corrige os parágrafos com os alunos e tira qualquer dúvida).

Homework: "Os dois últimos parágrafos vocês irão lê-los e sublinhar a idéia principal em casa. Não esqueçam de trazer este material na próxima aula".

APPENDIX C

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

I. Assinale com um (x) a única alternativa correta para cada questão abaixo:

1. He _____ everyday.
 - a. works
 - b. work
 - c. worked
 - d. working
2. These are the books _____ I told you about.
 - a. where
 - b. what
 - c. who
 - d. which
3. They _____ with us tomorrow.
 - a. went
 - b. go
 - c. are going
 - d. is going
4. I _____ his name.
 - a. did not know
 - b. does not know
 - c. known
 - d. do not know
5. Our car broke yesterday. _____ made us late for the plane.
 - a. these
 - b. this
 - c. they
 - d. those
6. They arrived _____ than her.
 - a. early
 - b. earlier
 - c. more early
 - d. earliest

7. She _____ to watch TV everyday.
- a. do not like
 - b. did not like
 - c. not like
 - d. does not like
8. _____ be there on time for the meeting next week?
- a. will you
 - b. you will
 - c. are you
 - d. you would
9. He _____ a book in the library yesterday.
- a. look for
 - b. looked for
 - c. looks for
 - d. looking for
10. He was very happy _____ his father wasn't.
- a. but
 - b. like
 - c. for
 - d. thus
11. Who is it? It's _____.
- a. me
 - b. I
 - c. mine
 - d. my
12. She got married _____ the seventeenth of August.
- a. at
 - b. in
 - c. with
 - d. on
13. He _____ not visited England yet.
- a. has
 - b. do
 - c. did
 - d. does

14. _____ are you from? I'm from Paris.
- a. what
 - b. who
 - c. which
 - d. where
15. Mary can _____ very fast.
- a. eat
 - b. to eat
 - c. eating
 - d. ate
16. _____ you gone to the theatre yesterday?
- a. did
 - b. have
 - c. do
 - d. does
17. You must _____ the bill.
- a. paying
 - b. to pay
 - c. pay
 - d. payed
18. _____ book do you prefer? The one on the left.
- a. whose
 - b. what
 - c. where
 - d. which
19. You write _____ than your brother.
- a. better
 - b. well
 - c. good
 - d. much
20. I like to drink coffee _____ sugar.
- a. out of
 - b. without
 - c. out
 - d. no

21. There is _____ sandwich on the table.
- another
 - other
 - others
 - many
22. Mary and Helen are in Argentina but _____ parents are here.
- her
 - theirs
 - their
 - hers
23. I enjoy _____ football.
- playing
 - that I play
 - to play
 - play
24. He is _____ tomorrow.
- travel
 - going to travel
 - traveled
 - will travel

II. Assinale com um (x) o melhor significado de cada palavra sublinhada nas questões abaixo:

1. Some people enjoy reading novels.
- compram
 - relutam
 - apreciam
 - emprestam
2. Until recently, I couldn't cook anything.
- antigamente
 - há alguns anos
 - atualmente
 - até recentemente
3. Why don't you look for your book in your room?
- ler
 - procurar
 - apanhar
 - guardar

4. She wants to have her own house one day.
- a. própria
 - b. grande
 - c. confortável
 - d. campestre
5. Read the instructions before doing anything.
- a. verifique
 - b. leia
 - c. escreva
 - d. revise
6. Both schools teach English very well.
- a. todas
 - b. algumas
 - c. cada
 - d. ambas
7. First, you watch the program; then, you give your opinion about it.
- a. depois
 - b. então
 - c. logo
 - d. conseqüentemente
8. Each person has a favorite dish.
- a. todas
 - b. nenhuma
 - c. cada
 - d. poucas
9. John is leaving the country. He will return only next year.
- a. chegando
 - b. conhecendo
 - c. deixando
 - d. morando
10. You have to choose which place you want to go.
- a. escolher
 - b. observar
 - c. decidir
 - d. indicar

11. She is also learning to speak French.

- a. também
- b. nunca
- c. às vezes
- d. sempre

12. A pop-group has many instruments, such as the guitar, the drums, etc.

- a. exceto
- b. incluindo
- c. principalmente
- d. tais como

13. Many years ago, I had a terrible accident.

- a. recentemente
- b. atrás
- c. depois
- d. antes

14. Can you get all those books for me?

- a. muitos
- b. poucos
- c. todos
- d. alguns

15. Although I wasn't here, I believe that your party was wonderful.

- a. embora
- b. contudo
- c. mas
- d. uma vez que

16. Since the bus had broken down, she couldn't come to the university.

- a. contudo
- b. apesar de
- c. logo que
- d. visto que

APPENDIX D

ANSWER KEY FOR THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

I.

1. a
2. d
3. c
4. a
5. b
6. b
7. d
8. a
9. b
10. a
11. a
12. b

13. a
14. d
15. a
16. b
17. c
18. d
19. a
20. b
21. a
22. c
23. a
24. b

II.

1. c
2. d
3. b
4. a
5. b
6. d
7. b
8. c

9. c
10. a
11. a
12. d
13. b
14. c
15. a
16. d

APPENDIX E

ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION PRE TEST

Leia o texto e responda as perguntas abaixo:

WHAT WE EAT AND DRINK

- 1 People in different parts of the world have different ideas about what is good to eat. If you were an Eskimo near the North Pole, you would enjoy raw meat. If you were a nomad in the desert, you would prefer the meat of sheep.
- 5 Americans specially like to eat hamburgers. But, they also eat a lot of chicken, as well as fish and other foods from the sea. Some people in India are vegetarians.
- 10 People in different parts of the world also have different ideas about what is good to drink. Among the most popular hot drinks are coffee and tea. Coffee is very popular in Europe. Some people put cream and sugar in their coffee. But in the United States, many people drink their coffee "black", that is, without cream or sugar.
- 15 Tea is the national drink in China, Japan and other Oriental countries because over there everybody drinks it. In the Orient, people drink tea without sugar. But in England, where it is also a national drink, many people use both sugar and hot or cold milk in their tea. Others use lemon.
- 20 In Brazil, people like to eat different kinds of food. Each region has its favorite dish. For example, in the northeast, people like to eat dried meat. But, almost everybody in the country likes to drink coffee. However, they drink it in different ways: with sugar, "black", hot
- 25 or cold.
- As travel becomes faster and easier, we are learning more about what other people like to eat and drink. Almost everyone likes to try new foods and drinks and to learn about how they are prepared.

(Adapted from: Allen, H. et al. 1973. 2 ed. English for Today, book 3, National Council of Teachers of English: USA)

I. Com base no texto, escolha o melhor significado das palavras sublinhadas abaixo:

1. "If you were a nomad in the desert, you would prefer the meat of sheep". Parágrafo 1, linha 4.

- a. bode
- b. ganso
- c. coelho
- d. ovelha

2. "Among the most popular drinks are coffee and tea". Parágrafo 2, linha 9.

- a. entre
- b. todas
- c. algumas
- d. parte

3. "In the Orient, people drink tea without sugar". Parágrafo 3, linha 16.

- a. às vezes com
- b. sempre com
- c. sem
- d. com pouco

4. "... in the northeast, people like to eat dried meat". Parágrafo 4, linha 22.

- a. gorda
- b. seca
- c. mal-passada
- d. no ponto

5. "As travel becomes faster and easier, we are learning more about what other people like to eat and drink". Parágrafo 5, linha 26.

- a. viajar
- b. comunicar
- c. ler
- d. dar notícias

II. Segundo o contexto, dê o significado das palavras grifadas abaixo:

1. "If you were an Eskimo near the North Pole, you would enjoy raw meat". Parágrafo 1, linha 3.

Raw quer dizer:

2. "Some people put cream and sugar in their coffee". Parágrafo 2, linha 11.

Sugar quer dizer:

3. "... many people use both sugar and hot or cold milk in their tea". Parágrafo 3, linha 18.

Milk quer dizer:

4. "Each region has its favorite dish". Parágrafo 4, linha 21.

Dish quer dizer:

5. "Almost everyone likes to try new foods and drinks and to learn about how they are prepared". Parágrafo 5, linha 29.

To learn quer dizer:

III. Com base no texto, responda em português as seguintes perguntas:

1. O que os americanos gostam especialmente de comer?
2. Quais são as bebidas quentes mais populares?
3. Como as pessoas bebem chá no Oriente?
4. Como as pessoas gostam de beber café no Brasil?
5. O que quase todas as pessoas gostam de experimentar?

IV. O texto contém cinco parágrafos. Liste abaixo (em português) a idéia principal de cada parágrafo.

Parágrafo 1:

Parágrafo 2:

Parágrafo 3:

Parágrafo 4:

Parágrafo 5:

V. Com base no texto, assinale se as seguintes sentenças são verdadeiras (V) ou falsas (F) e justifique sua resposta:

Ex. Hamburgers são bastante populares nos Estados Unidos. (V)

Justificativa: hamburger é uma comida que os americanos gostam muito de comer (linha 5).

1. Cada país tem suas comidas preferidas. ()

Justificativa:

2. As pessoas no Oriente só bebem chá. ()

Justificativa:

3. O café pode ser considerado a bebida nacional do Brasil. ()

Justificativa:

4. Algumas pessoas na Índia não comem carne e peixe. ()

Justificativa:

5. É difícil saber o que as pessoas gostam de comer em outros países. ()

Justificativa:

6. Algumas pessoas no Brasil gostam de tomar café sem leite e sem açúcar. ()

Justificativa:

APPENDIX F

SUGGESTED ANSWER KEY FOR THE ENGLISH READING
COMPREHENSION PRE TEST

I.

1. d 2. a 3. c 4. b 5. a

II.

1. crua
2. açúcar
3. leite
4. prato
5. aprender

III.

1. Hamburgers.
2. Café e chá.
3. Sem açúcar.
4. De diversas maneiras: com açúcar, preto ou sem açúcar e sem leite, quente ou frio.
5. Novos drinques e comidas.

IV.

1. Parágrafo 1: Pessoas de lugares diferentes do mundo têm idéias diferentes sobre o que é bom para comer.
2. Parágrafo 2: Pessoas de lugares diferentes do mundo têm idéias diferentes sobre o que é bom para beber.
3. Parágrafo 3: Países diferentes têm hábitos diferentes de tomar chá.
4. Parágrafo 4: A comida e bebida que brasileiros gostam de comer e beber; ou, a diversificação de gostos para tipos de comida e bebida no Brasil.
5. Parágrafo 5: A facilidade de se aprender mais sobre os tipos de comida e bebida de outros países devido ao desenvolvimento da comunicação.

V.

1. (V)
Pessoas de lugares diferentes do mundo têm idéias diferentes sobre o que é bom para comer (linhas 1-2).
2. (F)
Chá é a bebida nacional, mas não significa única (linhas 16-17).
3. (V)
Quase todo mundo gosta de beber café no Brasil, da mesma maneira que todos bebem chá no Oriente (linhas 16 e 25).
4. (V)
Algumas pessoas na Índia são vegetarianas (linha 8).
5. (F)
As viagens facilitam sabermos os gostos de outros países (linha 28-29).
6. (V)
No Brasil as pessoas gostam de beber café de diversas maneiras inclusive preto (linha 27).

APPENDIX G

ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION POST TEST

Leia o texto e responda as perguntas abaixo:

COMPUTERS

- 1 Nowadays everybody talks about computers - TV, magazines and newspaper show us how people are using computers to do many things.
- 5 Until recently, computers were only used by big companies, banks, etc. But nowadays everybody is using microcomputers which are cheaper and smaller and are even sold in department stores. A great number of people buy microcomputers to use at home or in schools. In this way, several schools are using microcomputers to teach Physics, 10 Mathematics, Portuguese, Chemistry and other subjects.
- 15 But, what exactly is a computer? A computer is an instrument man has invented to help his own brain. It can make complicated calculations faster than man and with less mistakes. A computer has a memory, which is able to keep 20 information and then use it. This information is called data. A computer can memorize things man cannot, such as long lists of names, addresses, numbers, telephones, dates, texts, etc. It can compare information and find a solution in a short time.
- 25 A computer, however, cannot do everything. It needs a programmer. The programmer gives instructions to the computer to process the information necessary. These instructions tell the computer how to process the information, and in which order to process the information. 30 These instructions are organized into a series which is called a program. With only one computer, you can do many things. It is only necessary to change the program. In this way, you can have different programs to do different things, such as calculations, Geography lessons, etc.
- 30 Apart from this use of the computer, there are other uses: for example, the computer can be used as a form of entertainment to play video-games.

(Adapted from: Our Turn, Yázigi, book 3, 1^o grau, São Paulo, Difusão Nacional do Livro, 1984)

I. Com base no texto, escolha o melhor significado das palavras sublinhadas abaixo:

1. "Nowadays, everybody talks about computers..." Parágrafo 1, linha 1.

- a. agora
- b. atualmente
- c. futuramente
- d. neste dia

2. "... everybody is using microcomputers which are cheaper and smaller..." Parágrafo 3, linha 6.

- a. mais barato
- b. mais prático
- c. mais rápido
- d. mais moderno

3. "It can make complicated calculations faster than man and with less mistakes". Parágrafo 3, linha 13-14.

- a. menos erros
- b. muitos problemas
- c. alguns defeitos
- d. mais acertos

4. "A computer has a memory, which is able to keep information ...". Parágrafo 3, linha 14-15.

- a. guardar
- b. expandir
- c. combinar
- d. escolher

5. "... the computer can be used as a form of entertainment to play video games". Parágrafo 5, linha 33.

- a. ajuda
- b. parceria
- c. lazer
- d. expansão

II. Segundo o contexto, dê o significado das palavras abaixo:

1. "...TV, magazines and newspaper show us how people are using computers..." Parágrafo 1, linha 2.

Magazines quer dizer:

2. "... everybody is using microcomputers which are cheaper and smaller and are even sold in department stores". Parágrafo 2, linha 7.

Sold quer dizer:

3. "A computer is an instrument man has invented to help his own brain". Parágrafo 3, linha 12.

Brain quer dizer:

4. It can compare information and find a solution in a short time". Parágrafo 3, linha 18.

Find quer dizer:

5. "With only one computer, you can do many things. It is only necessary to change the program". Parágrafo 4, linha 27.

To change quer dizer:

III. Com base no texto, responda em português as seguintes perguntas:

1. Através de que meios de comunicação podemos obter informações sobre o uso do computador?
2. Para que finalidade um grande número de pessoas está comprando computadores?
3. O que um computador é capaz de memorizar?
4. Qual é a função do programador?
5. Além de usarmos o computador para ajudar no trabalho e nos estudos de que outra maneira ele pode ser utilizado?

IV. O texto contém cinco parágrafos. Liste abaixo (em português) a idéia principal de cada parágrafo.

Parágrafo 1:

Parágrafo 2:

Parágrafo 3:

Parágrafo 4:

Parágrafo 5:

V. Com base no texto, assinale se as seguintes sentenças são verdadeiras (V) ou falsas (F) e justifique sua resposta: .

Ex. Atualmente, é mais fácil de se comprar um computador. (V)

Justificativa: Os computadores, atualmente, são mais baratos e são encontrados em lugares mais acessíveis (linhas 5-7).

1. As informações sobre o computador sempre foram acessíveis a todos. ()

Justificativa:

2. Pode-se jogar xadrez com o computador. ()

Justificativa:

3. É muito difícil operar um computador. ()

Justificativa:

4. O progresso faz com que o homem procure novos meios de facilitar sua vida. ()

Justificativa:

5. O computador nunca comete erros. ()

Justificativa:

6. No passado, os computadores eram de difícil acesso. ()

Justificativa:

APPENDIX H

SUGGESTED ANSWER KEY FOR THE ENGLISH READING
COMPREHENSION POST TEST

I.

1. b 2. a 3. a 4. a 5. c

II.

1. Revistas.
2. Vendidos.
3. Cérebro.
4. Achar.
5. Mudar, modificar.

III.

1. TV, revistas e jornais.
2. Para usá-los em casa e na escola.
3. Enorme listas de nomes, endereços, números, telefones, datas, textos, etc.
4. Dar instruções ao computador para que a informação necessária seja processada.
5. Como forma de lazer para jogar video-games.

IV.

1. Parágrafo 1: Atualmente todos falam sobre computadores; ou, atualmente obtemos informações mais facilmente sobre computadores.
2. Parágrafo 2: Atualmente todos usam microcomputadores por serem mais baratos, menores e de maior acesso.
3. Parágrafo 3: O computador é um instrumento que o homem inventou para ajudar o seu próprio raciocínio.
4. Parágrafo 4: O computador necessita de um programador e programa para operar.
5. Parágrafo 5: O computador também pode ser usado de outras maneiras.

V.

1. (F)
Só atualmente que as informações são mais divulgadas (linhas 1-3)
2. (V)
O computador tem outros usos, como o lazer (linhas 33-35).
3. (F)

Atualmente todo mundo está usando o computador (linha 5-12).

4. (V)

O computador foi inventado pelo homem para ajudar o seu raciocínio (linhas 12-13).

5. (F)

Ele comete menos erros que o homem e depende de uma programação correta (linhas 15 e 22).

6. (V)

Os computadores eram usados apenas por bancos e companhias (linhas 4-5).

APPENDIX I

PORTUGUESE READING COMPREHENSION PRE TEST

Leia o texto e responda as perguntas abaixo:

A COLONIZAÇÃO DE MARTE

- i Parece evidente que, após a Lua, Marte será o segundo astro que o homem irá colonizar. Trata-se do planeta mais habitável: a gravidade é inferior à terrestre, os dias duram 30 minutos mais do que os
- 5 nossos, existe grande quantidade de água estocada nas calotas polares e talvez no subsolo. Apesar do frio e da atmosfera muito tênue e rica em gás carbônico, será perfeitamente possível lá viver e trabalhar. A conquista de Marte deverá ocorrer nos primeiros
- 10 decênios do século XXI, paralelamente aos grandes projetos de industrialização das regiões vizinhas à Terra: nas estações espaciais; com a instalação das primeiras bases de mineração e industrialização dos recursos naturais da Lua e de alguns asteróides; e a
- 15 instalação das indústrias mais poluentes em órbita, poupando assim a atmosfera terrestre.
- Com as naves espaciais existentes atualmente, estima-se que as primeiras viagens a Marte deverão durar pelo menos três anos - seis meses de ida e dois
- 20 anos e meio de regresso. A mecânica celeste é a responsável por este longo intervalo de tempo. Com efeito, na ida o veículo ganha tempo em virtude da velocidade da Terra em sua órbita ao redor do sol ser duas vezes mais rápida que a de Marte. Assim, durante
- 25 a volta a nave será obrigada a percorrer uma revolução e meia ao redor do Sol para alcançar a Terra.
- A primeira base em Marte deverá ser constituída de módulos semelhantes ao laboratório espacial, que servirão de alojamento; uma central de energia solar
- 30 fornecerá a eletricidade para a eletrólise da atmosfera, com o objetivo de produzir o combustível necessário ao regresso das naves; um módulo de desumidificação da atmosfera, instalado junto à base, produzirá água necessária à vida; e uma unidade de
- 35 hidrocultura permitirá o cultivo de plantas. O planejamento das etapas da colonização do planeta vermelho já está bem detalhado.
- O veículo interplanetário será construído em órbita terrestre, na estação espacial internacional.
- 40 Simultaneamente, uma nave cargueira não tripulada será lançada em direção a Marte com equipamentos necessários para a instalação da primeira base marciana. Quando a nave tripulada estiver a caminho, uma segunda estará sendo montada na estação espacial para que haja um

- 45 revezamento do pessoal que partiu primeiro. Assim, oito
dos doze astronautas que haviam permanecido em Marte
durante dois anos embarcam nas naves cujos
reservatórios de combustível foram recarregados no
próprio planeta, e voltam para a Terra.
- 50 Os quatro que ficaram em Marte deverão preparar a
ampliação da base marciana com a segunda equipe. Desse
modo, de dois em dois anos, a instalação original será
ampliada até que veículos maiores desembarquem no
planeta para deixar um maior contingente de homens,
55 mulheres e material. Desse momento em diante, poderá se
falar de uma colonização humana de Marte. Nos séculos
vindouros, será a vez do sistema solar. Gradualmente,
o homem deixará de ser o atual prisioneiro da Terra
para se transformar num verdadeiro habitante de todo
60 o seu sistema planetário.

(From: Mourão, R. F. Ronaldo. Superinteressante
Nº1, janeiro, São Paulo: Editora Abril S.A.,
1989)

I. Com base no texto, escolha o melhor significado das
palavras sublinhadas abaixo:

1. "... existe grande quantidade de água estocada nas
calotas polares e talvez no subsolo". Parágrafo 1,
linha 6.

- a. peças de metal curvas
- b. crateras de gelo
- c. partes esféricas de gelo
- d. peças de metal

2. "Apesar do frio e da atmosfera muito tênue e rica em
gás carbônico, será perfeitamente possível lá viver e
trabalhar". Parágrafo 1, linha 7.

- a. fina
- b. espessa
- c. pesada
- d. nublada

3. "... na ida o veículo ganha tempo em virtude da velocidade
da Terra em sua órbita ao redor do Sol ser duas vezes mais
rápida que a de Marte". Parágrafo 2, linha 25.

- a. viagem
- b. trajetória
- c. caminho
- d. trilha

4. "... um módulo de desumidificação da atmosfera, instalado junto à base, produzirá água necessária à vida...". Parágrafo 3, linha 32.

- a. valor absoluto
- b. unidade
- c. compartimento
- d. meio

5. "... até que veículos maiores desembarquem no planeta para deixar um maior contingente de homens, mulheres e material". Parágrafo 5, linha 54.

- a. número
- b. mistura
- c. continuidade
- d. troca

II. Segundo o contexto, dê o significado das palavras abaixo:

1. "Apesar do frio e da atmosfera muito tênue e rica em gás carbônico, será perfeitamente possível lá viver e trabalhar". Parágrafo 1, linha 7.

Atmosfera quer dizer:

2. "A conquista de Marte deverá ocorrer nos primeiros decênios do século XXI...". Parágrafo 1, linha 10.

Decênios quer dizer:

3. "Simultaneamente, uma nave cargueira não tripulada será lançada em direção a Marte...". Parágrafo 4, linha 40.

Simultaneamente quer dizer:

4. "Os quatro que ficarem em Marte deverão preparar a ampliação da base marciana com a segunda equipe". Parágrafo 5, linha 51.

Ampliação quer dizer:

5. "Nos séculos vindouros, será a vez do sistema solar". Parágrafo 5, linha 57.

Vindouros quer dizer:

III. Com base no texto, responda as seguintes perguntas:

1. Por que Marte será provavelmente o segundo astro a ser colonizado pelo homem?

2. Por que nas primeiras viagens a Marte a nave espacial levará dois anos e meio para regressar à Terra?

3. Em Marte, como será obtido o combustível para o regresso a Terra?

4. Para que finalidade lançarão uma nave cargueira a Marte?

5. Quando o homem deixará de ser prisioneiro da Terra?

IV. O texto contém cinco parágrafos. Liste abaixo a idéia principal de cada parágrafo.

Parágrafo 1:

Parágrafo 2:

Parágrafo 3:

Parágrafo 4:

Parágrafo 5:

V. Com base no texto, assinale se as seguintes sentenças são verdadeiras (V) ou falsas (F) e justifique sua resposta:

Ex. A gravidade de Marte é a mais densa de todos os planetas. (F)

Justificativa: A gravidade de Marte é inferior a da Terra (linhas 3-4).

1. Um dia em Marte tem a duração de 25 horas. ()

Justificativa:

2. O planeta Marte começará a ser colonizado por volta do ano 2010. ()

Justificativa:

3. Provavelmente no ano de 1995 não haverá mais indústrias poluentes na Terra.

()

Justificativa:

4. Atualmente existem naves espaciais que já superam o problema de tempo no espaço.

()

Justificativa:

5. Cada astronauta que tomar parte no processo de colonização de Marte permanecerá de 5 a 7 anos no espaço.

()

Justificativa:

6. Quatro astronautas serão responsáveis pela instalação da primeira base marciana.

()

Justificativa:

APPENDIX J

SUGGESTED ANSWER KEY FOR THE PORTUGUESE READING
COMPREHENSION PRE TEST

I. 1. c 2. b 3. b 4. b. 5. a

- II. 1. Camada de ar que envolve o planeta
 2. Década, período de 10 anos
 3. Ao mesmo tempo, concomitantemente
 4. Aumento, alargamento, desenvolvimento
 5. Futuros, que hão de vir, posterior

- III. 1. Porque Marte é o planeta com características mais habitáveis.
 2. Porque ela terá que percorrer uma revolução e meia ao redor do Sol para alcançar a Terra ou, por motivos da mecânica celeste.
 3. Através de uma central de energia solar que fornecerá eletricidade para a eletrólise da atmosfera.
 4. Para mandarem equipamentos para a instalação da primeira base marciana.
 5. Quando ele se tornar habitante de todo o seu sistema solar.

- IV. Parágrafo 1: Marte será o segundo astro a ser colonizado pelo homem por volta dos primeiros decênios do século XXI.
 Parágrafo 2: As primeiras viagens a Marte deverão durar pelo menos três anos.
 Parágrafo 3: O planejamento das etapas de colonização de Marte já está bem detalhado.
 Parágrafo 4: Através de uma simultaneidade de lançamento e construção de naves espaciais haverá possibilidade de um revezamento de equipes e a possibilidade de mandar equipamentos para Marte.
 Parágrafo 5: Haverá uma ampliação da instalação original marciana para que o planeta possa ser colonizado e futuramente o sistema solar.

- V. 1. (F) Os dias em Marte duram 24 horas e 30 minutos (linha 4).
 2. (V) A colonização de Marte ocorrerá nos primeiros decênios do século XXI (linhas 8-10).
 3. (F) Isso só acontecerá no século XXI paralelamente a outros projetos como o da colonização de Marte (linhas 8-16).
 4. (F) As viagens espaciais ainda levam muitos anos como a de Marte que levará três anos (linhas 16-18).
 5. (V) Eles levarão três anos de viagem e uma média de dois anos ou mais na base marciana (linhas 19 e 52).
 6. (F) Doze astronautas tomarão parte na instalação da primeira base marciana (linha 46).

APPENDIX K

PORTUGUESE READING COMPREHENSION POST TEST

Leia o texto e responda as perguntas abaixo:

GRÃOS DE ALEGRIA

- 1 Quando o termômetro marca 30 graus, a salvação do brasileiro é uma cerveja gelada - a bebida oficial do verão neste país onde ela começou a ser fabricada apenas há pouco mais de um século e cuja população, ao
- 5 contrário da lenda, não faria boa figura num eventual campeonato mundial de levantamento de copos. O brasileiro bebe, em média, 28 litros por ano - algo como 1 litro a cada 13 dias. Isso nos deixa num modesto 14^o lugar no ranking mundial. O que o Brasil tem que
- 10 os outros não têm é o costume de enxugar quase a metade de toda a sua produção anual de 3.1 bilhões de litros nos gloriosos três meses de verão. No Brasil também, ao contrário de outros países, as marcas são poucas e os
- 15 tipos basicamente três - normal, pilsen e escura. Mas, se os ingredientes são sempre os mesmos, como é possível produzir variedades, das menos às mais amargas, das mais claras às mais escuras? É tudo uma questão de dosagem dos componentes. Em primeiro lugar
- 20 vem a cevada, cujos grãos devem ser umidificados até que comecem a germinar ou até o estágio que o mestre cervejeiro determine. Depois, os grãos são secados e deles se obtém o malte. Se o cervejeiro desejar um malte claro, a secagem será feita a uma temperatura de
- 25 80 graus e entrará na composição de uma cerveja clara. Mas se o cervejeiro quiser um malte para elaborar uma cerveja mais escura, os grãos devem ser secados entre 100 e 105 graus. Geralmente, em quase todos os países do mundo, à exceção da Alemanha, uma pequena parte do
- 30 malte empregado é substituída por cereais como arroz ou milho. Os grãos são então moídos e transformados em farinha à qual se junta água, também importante na coloração da cerveja. Se for rica em sais de cálcio, será ideal para fabricar cervejas escuras. Essa mistura
- 35 da água com a farinha é aquecida; depois, dela são retiradas as cascas do malte e dos cereais. Adicionam-se então flores de lúpulo - planta que começou a ser cultivada na Europa no século IX, mas só sete séculos mais tarde seria aproveitada pela
- 40 indústria cervejeira. Ela influi no sabor menos ou mais amargo que se queira dar à cerveja. O resultado do cozimento dessa mistura é o mosto, que uma vez filtrado

será resfriado para receber o fermento - microrganismos cultivados e testados em laboratório.

45 A palavra vem do latim *cervisia* ou *cerevisia* e foi empregada pelo escritor romano Plínio, o Velho (22-79 a.C.), autor da primeira documentação escrita sobre a bebida. Mas há notícias muito mais antigas sobre ela - há quase sete mil anos, os sumérios, um
50 povo que habitou a Mesopotâmia, hoje território do Iraque, tinham em suas oficinas caldeiras e cubas de maceração, além de barris para transportar líquidos. Fabricavam uma bebida feita de trigo e de um cereal chamado *emer*. Também os faraós egípcios tinham por
55 hábito saborear em vasilhas de barro uma bebida escura, feita com fragmentos de pão fermentados em recipientes de água por vários dias. Os judeus, durante seu cativeiro no Egito, teriam assimilado as técnicas de fabricação da bebida à qual atribuíam poderes
60 medicinais, entre os quais proteger contra a temida lepra. Mas serão os monges alemães do século IX os primeiros responsáveis pela fabricação de cerveja em larga escala. O motivo foi estritamente religioso: é que durante a Quaresma, nos monastérios medievais, só
65 se podia comer uma vez por dia. Como a abstinência não se estendia aos líquidos, os monges tomavam cerveja para enganar a fome.

Afinal, um litro de cerveja normal tem
70 basicamente 90 por cento de água e de 3 a 5 por cento de álcool; o restante são vitaminas, carboidratos, proteínas, aminoácidos e nutrientes como cálcio, potássio, sódio e fósforo. Isso tudo se traduz em 450 calorias por litro, algo como duas xícaras e meia de
75 de leite integral ou pouco mais de 120 gramas de queijo suíço. Não exatamente uma refeição, mas sem dúvida de grande valia para aplacar a fome. As propriedades nutrientes da cerveja são inegáveis. Além do mais, é uma bebida geralmente de médio teor alcoólico, o que
80 permite as pessoas ingerir quantidades mais generosas - ao contrário do que acontece com as bebidas destiladas como o uísque ou a vodka.

Como tudo na vida, a escolha da marca e do tipo de cerveja é uma questão de gosto. Mas o apurado
85 paladar dos entendidos aconselha que um bom bebedor deve ter como preocupação primeira tomar uma cerveja de boa qualidade e não apenas um líquido ligeiramente alcoólico e gasoso, "estupidamente gelado", só para matar a sede.

(Adapted from: *Superinteressante*, Nº 2, fevereiro, São Paulo: Editora Abril S A, 1988)

I. Com base no texto, escolha o melhor significado das palavras sublinhadas abaixo:

1. "...não faria boa figura num eventual campeonato mundial de levantamento de copos". Parágrafo 1, linha 5.

- a. determinado
- b. normal
- c. casual
- d. famoso

2. "... entrará na composição de uma cerveja clara". Parágrafo 2, linha 25.

- a. conciliação
- b. constituição
- c. mistura
- d. obtenção

3. "... os primeiros responsáveis pela fabricação de cerveja em larga escala". Parágrafo 3, linha 43.

- a. quantidade
- b. crescimento
- c. desenvolvimento
- d. consumo

4. "Não exatamente uma refeição, mas sem dúvida de grande valia para aplacar a fome". Parágrafo 4, linha 76.

- a. utilidade
- b. poder
- c. validade
- d. força

5. "Mas o apurado paladar dos entendidos aconselha que um bom bebedor..." Parágrafo 5, linha 83.

- a. apressado
- b. puro
- c. delicado
- d. irritado

II. Segundo o contexto, dê o significado das palavras grifadas abaixo:

1. "... o costume de enxugar quase a metade de toda a sua produção anual de 3.1 bilhões de litros..." Parágrafo 1, linha 10.

Enxugar quer dizer:

2. "É tudo uma questão de dosagem dos componentes".
Parágrafo 2, linha 19.

Dosagem quer dizer:

3. "...durante a Quaresma, nos monastérios medievais só se podia comer uma vez por dia". Parágrafo 3, linha 64.

Monastérios quer dizer:

4. "Como a abstinência não se estendesse aos líquidos..."
Parágrafo 3, linha 65.

Abstinência quer dizer:

5. "...ao contrário do que acontece com as bebidas destiladas como o uísque ou a vodka". Parágrafo 4, linha 80.

Destiladas quer dizer:

III. Com base no texto, responda as seguintes perguntas:

1. Por que os brasileiros não fariam uma boa figura num campeonato mundial de levantamento de copos?
2. O processo de formação da cerveja é extenso e passa por várias etapas. O que é feito com os grãos da cevada logo após eles serem umidificados?
3. O que os judeus viam de especial na cerveja?
4. Por que os monges foram os primeiros responsáveis pela fabricação da cerveja em larga escala?
5. Como a cerveja conseguia amenizar a fome dos monges alemães?

IV. O texto contém cinco parágrafos. Liste abaixo a idéia principal de cada parágrafo.

Parágrafo 1:

Parágrafo 2:

Parágrafo 3:

Parágrafo 4:

Parágrafo 5:

V. Com base no texto, assinale se as seguintes sentenças são verdadeiras (V) ou falsas (F) e justifique sua resposta:

Ex. Já se fabricava um tipo de cerveja há vários anos atrás. (V)

Justificativa: Há quase sete mil anos eles já fabricavam um tipo de bebida com características da cerveja (linhas 50-54).

1. A cerveja tem sido fabricada no Brasil há mais de 200 anos. ()

Justificativa:

2. Existem, no mundo, cervejas de várias marcas, mas apenas de três tipos: normal, pilsen e escura. ()

Justificativa:

3. As flores de lúpulo foram usadas na produção de cerveja por volta do século XVI. ()

Justificativa:

4. A origem da palavra cerveja foi documentada pela primeira vez no século VII a.c. ()

Justificativa:

5. O uísque e a vodka embebedam com mais facilidade do que a cerveja. ()

Justificativa:

6. Pessoas diferentes gostam de tipos e marcas diferentes de cervejas. ()

Justificativa:

APPENDIX L

SUGGESTED ANSWER KEY FOR THE PORTUGUESE READING
COMPREHENSION POST TEST

I. 1. c 2. b 3. a 4. a 5. c

II. 1. secar, esgotar, beber.
 2. quantidade fixa de uma substância.
 3. mosteiros, habitações dos monges.
 4. privação
 5. passadas de estado líquido ao gasoso e depois de novo ao líquido; estiladas

III. 1. Porque os brasileiros não são os maiores consumidores de cerveja, estando no 14th ranking mundial.
 2. Eles são secados para se obter o malte.
 3. Else atribuíam poderes medicinais à bebida.
 4. Por motivos religiosos quando na quaresma eles comiam apenas uma vez ao dia e tomavam muita cerveja para enganar a fome.
 5. Eles a bebiam em grande quantidade já que ela possui propriedades nutrientes.

IV. Parágrafo 1: A população brasileira não é a maior consumidora mundial de cerveja, mas destaca-se por consumi-la bastante no verão mesmo não tendo tipos e marcas diferentes.
 Parágrafo 2: Através de um processo bem selecionado de dosagem dos componentes da cerveja, é possível produzir tipos diferentes de cerveja.
 Parágrafo 3: A cerveja é uma bebida bastante antiga.
 Parágrafo 4: A cerveja possui propriedades nutrientes e um médio teor alcoólico.
 Parágrafo 5: Apesar da escolha da marca e do tipo de cerveja ser uma questão de gosto, deve-se ter como preocupação primeira tomar uma cerveja de boa qualidade.

V. 1. (F) A cerveja começou a ser fabricada no Brasil há pouco mais de um século (linha 4).
 2. (F) No Brasil só existem esses três tipos ao contrário de outros países (linhas 14,15).
 3. (V) Apesar de ter começado a ser cultivada no século IX, só foi aproveitada na produção de cerveja sete séculos depois (linhas 47-49).
 4. (F) Plínio, O Velho foi o primeiro a documentar a bebida, isto no período 22-79 a.C. (45-47).
 5. (V) Elas são destiladas e contêm alto teor alcoólico (linha 80-81).
 6. (V) A escolha da marca e do tipo de cerveja é uma questão de gosto (linha 82, 83).

APPENDIX M

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION PRE TEST

Leia o texto abaixo e escreva um resumo do texto em português.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

Most authorities divide musical instruments into four classes according to the principle of acoustics. These are: idiophones, membranophones, aerophones (wind instruments) and cordophones (stringed instruments).

Idiophones are instruments made of materials which are resonant. That is, they can produce sounds by themselves. They can be subdivided according to the method by which they are made to vibrate: by percussion or by friction. One of the most common examples of the first group is the marimba.

Membranophones are instruments which produce sounds by vibrating a tight membrane. The best examples of these are the drums.

Aerophones must have two essential parts: a body enclosing a column of air and a device for interrupting the air flow. Some examples of aerophones are the flute, the trumpet and the clarinet.

Cordophones emit sound by vibrating a tightly-stretched string. Cordophones are usually divided into classes according to whether the vibrations are made by plucking (the guitar), by striking (the piano) or by friction (the violin).

(Adapted from: Moore, J. et al. 3 ed. 1979.

Reading and Thinking in English:

Discovering Discourse. Oxford, Oxford
University Press)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| - according to: de acordo com | - drums: tambores |
| - string: corda | - enclosing: encerrar |
| - body: corpo | - device: dispositivo |
| - flow: fluxo | - flute: flauta |
| - plucking: dedilhando | - striking: tocando |
| - wind instruments: instrumentos de sopro | |
| - tightly-stretched: bem apertado | |
| - whether: se | |

APPENDIX N

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION POST TEST

Leia o texto abaixo e escreva um resumo do texto em português.

FOOD TRANSPORTATION

Speed is important in transporting fresh food. Perishable food must reach the market as fast as possible. Nowadays, there are modern ways of transporting food, such as airplanes, trucks, trains and ships.

Airplanes are the fastest way to transport food. They are especially useful in carrying food to people and animals that could not be reached by other ways. If there were a flood in a place, the people could not be reached by trains or trucks. Airplanes could drop packages of food to them. But there is a disadvantage in using planes: air transportation is usually the most expensive way of carrying food.

Trucks have many advantages. A truck can start as soon as it is loaded, and it can transport the food directly to the market. Many modern trucks have their own refrigeration systems.

Trains cannot always carry food as fast as trucks. They are slower and when the trains arrive in the city, the food must be unloaded from them into trucks to be taken to the market.

Some perishable food, such as bananas, can be transported by refrigerator ships. They are loaded in the ship while they are still green. The cool temperature keep the bananas from getting ripe during the trip.

But not all food needs to be transported as fast as perishable fresh food. Cereals, for example, can make a slower trip without danger of perishing.

(Adapted from: Allen, H. et al. 1973. 2 ed.
English for Today. Book 3, New York:
 National Council of Teachers of English)

GLOSSARY

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| - speed: velocidade | - to drop: deixar cair |
| - fresh: fresca, nova | - expensive: caro |
| - perishable: perecível | - loaded: carregado |
| - train: trem | - arrive: chegar |
| - truck: caminhão | - ripe: madura |
| - ship: navio | - to keep from: impedir |
| - as fast as: tão rápido quanto | - while: enquanto |
| - flood: enchente | - danger: perigo |

APPENDIX O

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION PRE TEST

Leia o texto abaixo e escreva um resumo do texto.

NÃO ESQUEÇA DE CONHECER A SUA MEMÓRIA

O cérebro está sempre gravando tudo o que a pessoa vê, ouve, sente ou toca. Mas o que dá foco àquilo que se grava, tornando as lembranças mais nítidas ou menos, é a concentração - cuja falta é a principal responsável pelos problemas de memória. Por isso, o primeiro passo para se avaliar a memória de alguém é testar a sua atenção: pedir, por exemplo, que conte até cem de três em três números - 1, 4, 7, 10 etc. "Quem não consegue cumprir a meta não tem atenção suficiente para fixar informações", interpreta a neuropsicóloga Cândida Pires de Camargo, do Hospital das Clínicas de São Paulo.

Se está tudo bem com a atenção, testa-se a capacidade de reter eventos mais remotos, com perguntas sobre fatos históricos conhecidos, enredos de filmes antigos e ainda mostrando fotos de personalidades para serem identificadas. "Finalmente, peço ao paciente que me conte fatos importantes de sua vida em ordem cronológica; depois confiro essa ordem com seus familiares", diz Cândida. Já os testes de memória imediata ou recente são mais específicos, conforme a modalidade - memória para números, rostos, nomes etc. "O importante é dar o estímulo uma única vez; por exemplo, mostrar um desenho e logo escondê-lo, para a pessoa reproduzir o que se lembra dali a 5 minutos, meia hora, um dia, uma semana", descreve a neuropsicóloga.

Ela aplica um método semelhante para testar a memória verbal, pedindo que o paciente repita uma história breve, de quatro ou cinco linhas, também em prazos diferentes. É natural esquecer um ou outro detalhe. Mas se após uma semana a pessoa só se recordar de 60 por cento de história, então é preciso diagnosticar se a dificuldade é de evocação - o equivalente a buscar a ficha correta nos arquivos do cérebro - ou de fixação. Problemas de evocação costumam estar relacionados a estados de ansiedade e de depressão, que comprovadamente atrapalham o processo de trazer as lembranças à tona. Esse tipo de problema pode ser tratado com auxílio de um psicoterapeuta. "Casos em que a dificuldade é realmente de memória, quando o cérebro perde a capacidade de gravar, são raríssimos", informa Cândida. "Isso é seguramente sinal de que alguma doença orgânica está em andamento."

(From: Superinteressante, Nº 8, São Paulo, Editora Abril, 1988)

APPENDIX P

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION POST TEST

Leia o texto abaixo e escreva um resumo do texto em português.

COMO FAZEMOS PARA CHEIRAR BEM

Os odores são sentidos na chamada área olfativa da cavidade nasal. Trata-se de uma câmara situada num lugar pouco acessível, na parte mais alta e funda do nariz, longe do fluxo do ar que respiramos. Existe um motivo para isso: se as células olfativas, que são muito sensíveis, ficassem demasiado expostas ao ar, acabariam danificadas pela poeira e o sobe-desce da temperatura.

Por causa dessa localização, ocorre um fenómeno estranho: quando se respira normalmente não se sente cheiro algum. Mas, quando um odor qualquer existe no ar numa concentração relativamente alta, algumas moléculas odoríferas podem alcançar a câmara. Diante dessa sensação ainda imprecisa, o cérebro ordena uma segunda aspiração mais forte - para provocar o que os cientistas chamam turbilhão de ar dentro do nariz, capaz de carregar as moléculas para a câmara olfativa. Tudo isso acontece num relance e sem que a pessoa se dê conta.

Na câmara, as moléculas são atraídas para a mucosa amarela formada pelas células olfativas, também chamadas de receptores. No lado externo, um receptor possui cílios microscópicos cobertos por uma fina camada de muco; no lado interno, ele se prolonga sob a forma de um nervo. Durante muito tempo, acreditou-se que os aromas eram reconhecidos graças a reações químicas entre as moléculas odoríferas e o muco. Tais reações seriam sentidas pelos cílios dos receptores, que as transformariam em estímulos nervosos.

"Hoje se sabe que o processo não é químico, mas físico", explica o professor Paulo Pontes. "Os receptores avaliam o peso e os prótons liberados pelas moléculas odoríferas e, a partir disso, engatilham um certo estímulo." O muco, por sua vez, serve para proteger os receptores, e também para diluir e expulsar da câmara olfativa as moléculas do odor.

Os impulsos dos receptores são ondas elétricas que percorrem os nervos até o bulbo olfativo, uma estrutura logo abaixo da parte frontal do cérebro. O bulbo mantém uma espécie de linha direta com o sistema nervoso central: nele se dará a sinapse ou conexão com o cérebro. Até aí, tudo bem. Mas a ciência ainda fareja explicações para a questão de como o cérebro identifica um odor.

(From: Superinteressante, Nº1, São Paulo, Editorial Abril, 1988)

APPENDIX Q

SAMPLE OF INSTRUCTION GIVEN TO THE JUDGES TO CLASSIFY THE LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE OF THE SENTENCES IN THE TEXTS USED FOR THE PRE AND POST TESTS

Assign every sentence of each text a 3, 2 or 1, depending upon the following criteria:

- 3 - the sentence contains very important information and should appear in **some form** (even in a more condensed way) in a potential summary.
- 2 - the sentence contains moderately important information and might or might not appear in **some form** (even in a more condensed way) in a potential summary.
- 1 - the sentence contains unimportant information that should not appear in **any form** in a potential summary.

It is important to observe that the classification of each sentence as 3, 2 or 1 must be determined in terms of its level of importance to the whole text.

FOOD TRANSPORTATION

- 1. () Speed is important in transporting fresh food.
- 2. () Perishable food must reach the market as fast as possible.
- 3. () Nowadays, there are modern ways of transporting food, such as airplanes, trucks, trains and ships.
- 4. () Airplanes are the fastest way to transport food.
- 5. () They are especially useful in carrying food to people and animals that could not be reached by other ways.
- 6. () If there were a flood in a place, the people could not be reached by trains or trucks.
- 7. () Airplanes could drop packages of food to them.
- 8. () But there is a disadvantage in using planes: air transportation is usually the most expensive way of carrying food.
- 9. () Trucks have many advantages.
- 10. () A truck can start as soon as it is loaded, and it can transport the food directly to the market.
- 11. () Many modern trucks have their own refrigeration systems.
- 12. () Trains cannot always carry food as fast as trucks.
- 13. () They are slower and when the trains arrive in the city, the food must be unloaded from them into trucks to be taken to the market.
- 14. () Some perishable food, such as bananas, can be transported by refrigerator ships.
- 15. () They are loaded in the ship while they are still green.
- 16. () The cool temperatures keep the bananas from getting ripe during the trip.
- 17. () But not all food needs to be transported as fast as perishable fresh food.
- 18. () Cereals, for example, can make a slower trip without danger of perishing.

APPENDIX R

RESULTS OF SENTENCE CLASSIFICATION OF THE TEXTS USED FOR THE PRE
AND POST SUMMARIZATION TESTS

FOOD TRANSPORTATION

MAIN IDEAS

- Speed is important in transporting fresh food.
- Nowadays, there are modern ways of transporting food, such as airplanes, trucks, trains and ships.
- Airplanes are the fastest way to transport food.
- But there is a disadvantage in using planes: air transportation is usually the most expensive way of carrying food.
- A truck can start as soon as it is loaded, and it can transport the food directly to the market.
- They are slower and when the trains arrive in the city, the food must be unloaded from them into trucks to be taken to the market.
- Some perishable food, such as bananas, can be transported by refrigerator ships.
- But not all food needs to be transported as fast as perishable fresh food.

SECONDARY IDEAS

- Perishable food must reach the market as fast as possible.
- They are especially useful in carrying food to people and animals that could not be reached by trains or trucks.
- Airplanes could drop packages of food to them.
- Trucks have many advantages.
- Many modern trucks have their own refrigeration systems.
- Trains cannot always carry food as fast as trucks.
- They are loaded in the ship while they are still green.
- Cereals, for example, can make a slower trip without danger of perishing.

DETAILS

- If there were a flood in a place, the people could not be reached by trains or trucks.
- The cool temperatures keep the bananas from getting ripe during the trip.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

MAIN IDEAS

- Most authorities divide musical instruments into four classes according to the principle of acoustics.
- Idiophones are instruments made of materials which are resonant.
- Membranophones are instruments which produce sounds by vibrating a tight membrane.
- Aerophones must have two essential parts: a body enclosing a column of air and a device for interrupting the air flow.
- Cordophones emit sound by vibrating a tightly-stretched string.

SECONDARY IDEAS

- These are: idiophones, membranophones, aerophones (wind instruments) and cordophones (stringed instruments).
- They can be subdivided according to the method by which they are made to vibrate: by percussion or by friction.
- Cordophones are usually divided into classes according to whether the vibrations are made by plucking (the guitar), by striking (the piano) or by friction (the violin).

DETAILS

- That is, they can produce sounds by themselves.
- One of the most common examples of the first group is the marimba.
- The best examples of these are the drums.
- Some examples of aerophones are the flute, the trumpet and the clarinet.

NÃO ESQUEÇA DE CONHECER A SUA MEMÓRIA

MAIN IDEAS

- O cérebro está sempre gravando tudo o que a pessoa vê, ouve, sente ou toca.
- Mas o que dá foco àquilo que se grava, tornando as lembranças mais nítidas ou menos, é a concentração - cuja falta é a principal responsável pelos problemas de memória.
- Por isso, o primeiro passo para se avaliar a memória de alguém é testar sua atenção: pedir, por exemplo, que conte até cem de três em três números - 1, 4, 7, 10, etc.
- Se está tudo bem com a atenção, testa-se a capacidade de reter eventos mais remotos, com perguntas sobre fatos históricos conhecidos, enredos de filmes antigos e ainda

- mostrando fotos de personalidades para serem identificadas.
- Já os testes de memória imediata ou recente são os mais específicos conforme a modalidade - memória para números, rostos, nomes, etc.
- Ela aplica um método semelhante para testar a memória verbal, pedindo que o paciente repita uma história breve, de quatro ou cinco linhas, também em prazos diferentes.
- Mas se após uma semana a pessoa só se recorda de 60 por cento da história, então é preciso diagnosticar se a dificuldade é de evocação - o equivalente a buscar a ficha correta nos arquivos do cérebro - ou de fixação.

SECONDARY IDEAS

- "O importante é dar o estímulo uma única vez; por exemplo, mostrar um desenho e logo escondê-lo, para a pessoa reproduzir o que se lembra dali a cinco minutos, meia hora, um dia, uma semana", descreve a neuropsicóloga.
- Problemas de evocação costumam estar relacionados a estados de ansiedade e de depressão, que comprovadamente atrapalham o processo de trazer as lembranças à tona.
- "Isso é seguramente sinal de que alguma doença orgânica está em andamento".

DETAILS

- "Quem não consegue cumprir a meta não tem atenção suficiente para fixar informações", interpreta a neuropsicóloga Cândida Pires de Camargo do Hospital das Clínicas de São Paulo.
- "Finalmente, peço aos pacientes que me conte fatos importantes de sua vida em ordem cronológica; depois confirmo com seus familiares", diz Cândida.
- é natural esquecer um ou outro detalhe.
- Esse tipo de problema pode ser tratado com auxílio de um psicoterapeuta.
- "Casos em que a dificuldade é realmente de memória, quando o cérebro perde a capacidade de gravar são raríssimos", informa Cândida.

COMO FAZEMOS PARA CHEIRAR BEM

MAIN IDEAS

- Os odores são sentidos na chamada área olfativa da cavidade nasal.
- Trata-se de uma câmara situada num lugar pouco acessível, na parte mais alta e funda do nariz, longe do fluxo do ar

- que respiramos.
- Por causa dessa localização, ocorre um fenômeno estranho: quando se respira normalmente não se sente cheiro algum.
- Na câmara, as moléculas são atraídas para a mucosa amarela formada pelas células olfativas, também chamadas de receptores.
- "Hoje se sabe que o processo não é químico, mas físico", explica o professor Paulo Pontes.

SECONDARY IDEAS

- Existe um motivo para isso: se as células olfativas, que são muito sensíveis, ficassem demasiado expostas ao ar, acabariam danificadas pela poeira e o sobe-desce de temperatura.
- Mas, quando um odor qualquer existe no ar numa concentração relativamente alta, algumas moléculas odoríferas podem alcançar a câmara.
- Diante dessa sensação ainda imprecisa, o cérebro ordena uma segunda aspiração mais forte - para provocar o que os cientistas chamam turbilhão de ar dentro do nariz, capaz de carregar as moléculas para a câmara olfativa.
- No lado externo, um receptor possui cílios microscópicos: cobertos por uma fina camada de muco; no lado interno, ele se prolonga sob a forma de um nervo.
- Durante muito tempo, acreditou-se que os aromas eram reconhecidos graças a reações químicas entre as moléculas odoríferas e o muco.
- "Os receptores avaliam o peso e os prótons liberados pelas moléculas odoríferas e, a partir disso, engatilham um certo estímulo".
- O muco, por sua vez, serve para proteger os receptores, e também para diluir e expulsar da câmara olfativa as moléculas do odor.
- Os impulsos dos receptores são ondas elétricas que percorrem os nervos até o bulbo olfativo, uma estrutura logo abaixo da parte frontal do cérebro.
- O bulbo mantém uma espécie de linha direta com o sistema nervoso central: nele se dará a sinapse ou conexão com o cérebro.
- Mas a ciência ainda fareja explicações para a questão de como o cérebro identifica um odor.

DETAILS

- Tudo isso acontece num relance e sem que a pessoa se dê conta.
- Tais reações seriam sentidas pelos cílios dos receptores, que as transformariam em estímulos nervosos.
- Até aí, tudo bem.

APPENDIX S

SUBJECTS' RAW SCORES ON THE PRE AND POST-TESTS

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

SUBJECTS	CONTROL	EXPERIMENTAL
	GROUP	GROUP
1	21	18
2	5	21
3	19	10
4	11	14
5	15	23
6	13	16
7	23	15
8	11	11
9	17	19
10	15	24
11	23	21
12	12	20
MEAN	15.4	17.6

ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION PRE AND POST-TESTS

CONTROL GROUP			EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	
SUBJECTS	PRE TEST	POST TEST	PRE TEST	POST TEST
1	13.5	6.49	12.5	18
2	10	7.8	13.75	14.5
3	14.5	13	12.5	25
4	13.25	10	15	22
5	11.75	5.35	12.25	24
6	9.5	12.1	14.5	22.3
7	12.75	10	15	22.5
8	11.5	9.3	9.25	18.1
9	10.5	6	17.5	17.9
10	23	20.8	8.75	20.8
11	14.75	7.5	13	12.5
12	13	15	10.5	20.1
MEAN	13.1	10.2	12.8	19.8

PORTUGUESE READING COMPREHENSION

PRE AND POST-TESTS

SUBJECTS	CONTROL GROUP		EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	
	PRE TEST	POST TEST	PRE TEST	POST TEST
1	14.5	11	15	16
2	14	12	12	12
3	16.5	5	12.5	20
4	11.5	11	14.5	19
5	11	11	19.5	22
6	6.5	5.5	15.5	23
7	17.5	23	17	20
8	18	17.5	15	21
9	12.5	7	13.5	20
10	21	8.5	15	24
11	8	5	13	20
12	9	10.5	16	23
MEAN	13.3	10.5	14.8	20

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST-TESTS
OF THE CONTROL GROUP
(CONTENT)

	MAIN IDEAS		SECONDARY IDEAS		DETAILS		TOTAL	
SUBJECTS	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	21	14	8	8	1	2	30	24
2	28	7	8	12	3	2	39	21
3	35	56	8	20	4	2	47	78
4	21	49	4	16	3	2	28	67
5	21	21	4	20	2	1	27	42
6	28	28	4	24	1	0	33	52
7	35	35	4	32	1	1	40	68
8	35	49	4	20	2	0	41	69
9	28	35	8	24	1	2	37	61
10	35	49	12	32	2	1	49	82
11	28	42	12	28	3	1	43	71
12	28	35	12	32	4	2	44	69
MEAN	28.6	35	7.3	22.3	2.3	1.3	38.2	58.6

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST

TESTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP

(STRUCTURE)

SUBJECTS	REPRODUCTION		RUN-ON-- COMBINATION		COMBINATION		INVENTION		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	2	4	0	0	0	7	10	0	12	11
2	6	3	4	4	7	0	0	0	17	7
3	7	4	4	0	0	0	0	10	11	14
4	5	4	0	0	7	7	0	0	12	11
5	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	6
6	9	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	9	14
7	8	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	4
8	2	6	0	0	7	0	0	0	9	6
9	10	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	7
10	8	8	0	0	7	7	0	0	15	15
11	2	7	0	0	7	7	0	0	9	14
12	11	7	0	4	0	0	0	0	11	11
MEAN	6.4	5.0	0.7	0.7	2.9	3.5	0.8	0.8	10.8	10.0

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST
TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
(CONTENT)

	MAIN IDEAS		SECONDARY IDEAS		DETAILS		TOTAL	
SUBJECTS	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	28	35	8	12	3	1	39	48
2	35	35	12	0	3	0	50	35
3	35	35	12	20	2	0	49	55
4	21	28	8	8	2	1	31	37
5	35	56	12	28	4	0	51	84
6	35	35	12	8	2	2	49	45
7	35	42	12	12	4	2	51	56
8	35	42	12	8	2	0	49	50
9	28	56	12	20	2	0	42	76
10	35	35	8	0	2	0	45	35
11	35	35	0	12	0	0	35	47
12	28	42	4	4	3	0	35	46
MEAN	32.1	39.6	9.3	11.0	2.4	0.5	43.8	51.1

ENGLISH SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST
TESTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
(STRUCTURE)

SUBJECTS	REPRODUCTION		RUN-ON- COMBINATION		COMBINATION		INVENTION		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	3	3	0	4	7	14	10	0	20	21
2	4	2	4	0	14	7	0	0	22	9
3	2	5	0	0	7	21	0	0	9	26
4	3	3	0	4	0	14	10	0	13	21
5	9	7	0	0	0	21	0	0	9	28
6	5	3	0	0	0	28	0	0	5	31
7	9	5	0	0	0	14	0	0	9	19
8	2	4	0	0	7	14	0	0	9	18
9	5	7	0	0	7	14	0	0	12	21
10	7	0	4	0	0	0	0	10	11	10
11	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5
12	9	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	7
MEAN	5.2	4.3	0.7	0.7	3.5	12.2	1.7	0.8	11.1	18.0

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST
TESTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP
(CONTENT)

SUBJECTS	MAIN IDEAS		SECONDARY IDEAS		DETAILS		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	14	14	12	4	4	2	30	20
2	14	28	0	16	1	1	15	45
3	28	14	4	16	1	1	33	31
4	7	21	0	16	2	1	9	38
5	28	28	0	16	1	2	29	46
6	35	14	4	24	2	3	41	41
7	14	28	8	24	1	2	23	54
8	28	14	4	4	3	1	35	19
9	14	21	4	16	1	2	19	39
10	35	0	0	8	2	1	37	9
11	7	14	4	12	4	2	15	28
12	28	21	8	16	2	2	38	39
MEAN	21	18.1	4.0	14.3	2.0	1.7	27.0	34.1

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST

TESTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP

(STRUCTURE)

SUBJECTS	REPRODUCTION		RUN-ON- COMBINATION		COMBINATION		INVENTION		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	2	0	0	0	7	0	0	10	9	10
2	4	3	0	8	0	0	0	0	4	11
3	2	2	0	8	14	0	0	0	16	10
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	4	2	4	0	0	21	0	0	8	23
6	7	6	0	0	14	7	0	0	21	13
7	1	3	0	4	0	7	10	0	11	14
8	2	2	0	4	7	0	0	0	9	6
9	2	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
10	5	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	5	6
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	3	3	0	0	14	14	0	0	17	17
MEAN	2.7	1.9	1.0	2.3	4.7	4.1	0.8	0.8	9.2	9.1

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST
TESTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
(CONTENT)

SUBJECTS	MAIN IDEAS		SECONDARY IDEAS		DETAILS		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	14	28	8	8	3	0	25	36
2	21	42	4	4	2	0	27	46
3	21	14	0	4	3	0	24	18
4	14	35	4	12	2	1	20	48
5	28	21	0	20	1	0	29	41
6	35	28	4	16	2	0	41	44
7	35	35	12	16	4	1	51	52
8	21	35	4	20	2	0	27	55
9	14	42	0	12	2	0	16	54
10	14	35	0	0	1	0	15	35
11	21	35	4	8	3	0	28	43
12	14	42	12	12	4	0	30	54
MEAN	21	32.6	4.3	11.0	2.4	0.2	27.7	43.8

PORTUGUESE SUMMARIZATION PRE AND POST
TESTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
(STRUCTURE)

SUBJECTS	REPRODUCTION		RUN-ON- COMBINATION		COMBINATION		INVENTION		TOTAL	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
1	3	6	0	0	7	0	10	0	20	6
2	2	2	4	0	14	0	10	0	30	2
3	2	2	4	4	14	0	10	0	30	6
4	0	2	0	4	0	7	0	0	0	13
5	0	5	8	0	7	7	0	0	15	12
6	5	2	8	0	0	7	0	0	13	9
7	10	5	0	0	0	14	0	0	10	19
8	2	3	4	4	7	7	0	0	13	14
9	0	2	8	0	14	7	0	10	22	19
10	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	10	6	10
11	1	2	8	0	0	7	0	0	9	9
12	5	3	4	0	0	7	0	0	9	10
MEAN	2.7	2.8	4.3	1.0	5.3	5.3	2.5	1.7	14.8	10.8